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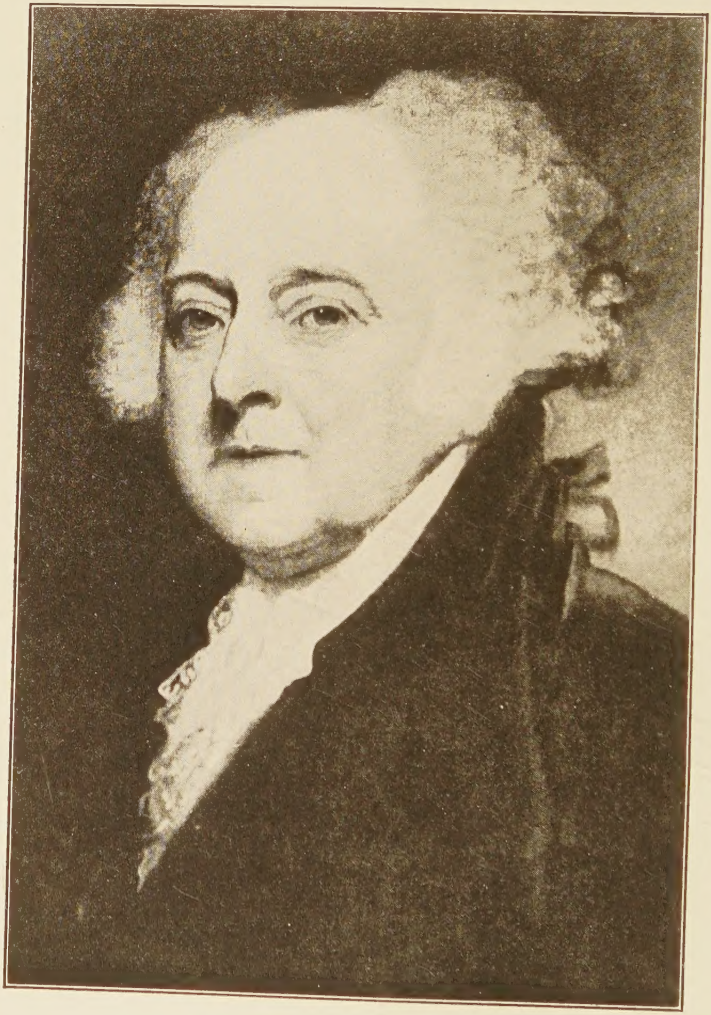

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FROM 458 A.D. TO 1906

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PREFACE

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF AMERICAN HISTORY

By Woodrow Wilson, Ph.D., LL.D.,
Professor of Jurisprudence and Politics at Princeton University

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The study of American history has changed its whole tone and aspect within a generation. Once a plain and simple tale,—though heroic withal,—of a virgin continent discovered in the West, new homes for the English made upon it, a new polity set up, a new nation made of a sudden in the hot crucible of war, a life and a government apart,—a thing isolated, singular, original, as if it were the story of a separate precinct and parish of the great world,—the history of the United States has now been brought at last into perspective, to be seen as what it is, an integral portion of the general history of civilization; a free working-out upon a clear field, indeed, of selected forces generated long ago in England and the old European world, but no irregular invention, no histrionic vindication of the Rights of Man. It has not lost its unique significance by the change, but gained, rather, a hundredfold both in interest and in value. It seemed once a school exercise in puritan theory and cavalier pride; it seems now a chapter written for grown men in the natural history of politics and society, a perfect exposition of what the European civilization of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was to produce in the nineteenth century. What formerly appeared to be only a by-product of the creative forces of society is now clearly enough seen to be the epitome of a whole age. We see it all, now that America, having come out of her days of adolescence and preparation, has taken her place among the powers of the world, fresh and still in her youth, but no stranger among the peoples,—a leader, rather, and pace-maker in the wide field of affairs.

The history of the United States is modern history in broad and open analysis, stripped of a thousand elements which, upon the European stage, confuse the eye and lead the judgment astray. It spans a whole age of the

world's transformation, from the discoveries, the adventure, the romance of the sixteenth century, with its dreams of unbounded wealth in the far Indies and marvels at the ends of the earth, to the sober commerce and material might of the twentieth, with its altered dreams, of a world mastered, if not united, by the power of armed fleets patrolling it from end to end, in the interests of peace and European and American trade.

At its outset American history discloses a novel picture of men out of an old world set upon the coasts of a new to do the work of pioneers, without suitable training either of thought or hand,—men schooled in an old civilization, puzzled, even daunted, by the wilderness in which they found themselves as by a strange and alien thing, ignorant of its real character, lacking all the knowledge and craft of the primitive world, lacking everything but courage, sagacity, and a steadfast will to succeed. As they pushed their gigantic task they were themselves transformed. The unsuitable habits of an old world fell away from them. Their old blood bred a new stock, and the youth of the race to which they belonged was renewed. And yet they did not break with the past, were for long scarcely conscious of their own transformation, held their thoughts to old channels, were frontiersmen with traditions not of the frontier, traditions which they cherished and held very dear, of a world in which there were only ancient kingdoms and a civilization set up and perfected time out of mind. Their muscles hardened to the work of the wilderness, they learned woodcraft and ranged the forests like men with the breeding, the quick instincts, the ready resource in time of danger of the Indian himself, and yet thought upon deep problems of religion, pondered the philosophy of the universities, were partisans and followers of statesmen and parties over sea, looked to have their fashions of dress sent to them, with every other old-world trapping they could pay for, by the European ships which diligently plied to their ports. Nowhere else, perhaps, is there so open and legible a record of the stiffness of thought and the flexibility of action in men, the union of youth and age, the dominion of habit reconciled with an unspoiled freshness of bold initiative.

And with the transplantation of men out of the old world into a wilderness went also the transplantation of institutions,—with the same result. The new way of life and association thrust upon these men reduced the complex things of government to their simples. Within those untouched forests they resumed again, as if by an unconscious instinct, the simple organization of village communities familiar to their race long centuries before, or here and there put palisades about a group of huts meant to serve for refuge and fortress against savage enemies lurking near at hand in the coverts, and lived in their "hundreds" again under captains, to spread at last slowly into counties with familiar sheriffs and quarter-sessions. It was as if they had

brought their old-time polity with them, not in the mature root nor even in the young cutting, but in the seed merely, to renew its youth and yield itself to the influences of a new soil and a new environment. It was drawn back to its essential qualities, stripped of its elaborate growth of habits, as they themselves were. All things were touched, as it were, by the light of an earlier age returned. The study of American history furnishes, as a consequence, materials such as can be found nowhere else for a discrimination between what is accidental and what is essential in English political practice. Principles developed by the long and intricate processes of the history of one country are here put to experimental test in another, where every element of life is simplified, every problem of government reduced to its fundamental formulæ. There is here the best possible point of departure, for the student who can keep his head and who knows his European history as intimately as he knows his American, for a comparative study of institutions which may some day yield us a sane philosophy of politics which shall forever put out of school the thin and sentimental theories of the disciples of Rousseau.

This is the new riches which the study of American history is to afford in the light that now shines upon it: not national pride merely, nor merely an heroic picture of men wise beyond previous example in building States, and uniting them under a government at once free and strong, but a real understanding of the nature of liberty, of the essential character and determining circumstances of self-government, the fundamental contrasts of race and social development, of temper and of opportunity, which of themselves make governments or mar them. It may well yield us, at any rate, a few of the first principles of the natural history of institutions.

The political history of America was the outcome of a constitutional struggle which concerned Englishmen in England no less deeply than it concerned Englishmen in the colonies, a struggle whose motives were compounded both of questions of conscience and of questions of civil liberty, of longings to be free to think and of longings to be free to act. And Englishmen on the two sides of the sea were not wholly divorced in the issue of that struggle. Not America alone, but the power to rule without principle and restraint at home as well, was once for all cut off from the crown of England. But there was sharp contrast, too, between the effects wrought in England and the effects wrought in America. On one side the sea an ancient people won their final battle for constitutional government; on the other side a new people was created,—a people set free to work out a new experience both in the liberty of its churches and in its political arrangements, to gain a new consciousness, take on a distinctive character, transform itself from a body of loosely associated English colonies into a great commonwealth, not English nor yet colonial merely, but transmuted, within little more than a

generation, into a veritable nation, marked out for an independent and striking career.

At the Revolution the American States did hardly more than disengage themselves from the English dominion. Their thoughts, their imaginations, were still held subject to policy and opinion over sea. By the close of the War of 1812, these last, impalpable bonds were also thrown off. American statesmen had got their freedom of thought, and, within a generation, were the leaders of a nation and a people apart. One has only to contrast the persistent English quality and point of view of the English colonies of to-day, self-governing communities though most of them are, which have led their own lives for generations together under parliaments and ministers of their own free choosing, with the distinctive character of the United States to realize how much of the history of nations is spiritual, not material, a thing, not of institutions, but of the heart and the imagination. This is one of the secrets American history opens to the student, the deepest of all secrets, the genesis of nationality, the play of spirit in the processes of history.

Of course the present separateness and distinctive character of the United States among the nations is due in part to the mixture of races in the make-up of their people. Men out of every European race, men out of Asia, men out of Africa have crowded in, to the bewilderment alike of the statesmen and of the historian. An infinite crossing of strains has made a new race. And yet there is a mystery here withal. Where, when, in what way, have our institutions and our life as a people been turned to new forms and into new channels by this new union and chemistry of bloods? There has been no break in our constitutional development. Nothing has been done of which we can confidently say, This would not have been done had we kept the pure Saxon strain. All peoples have come to dwell among us, but they have merged their individuality in a national character already formed; have been dominated, changed, absorbed. We keep until now some of the characteristic differences of organization and action transplanted to this continent when races were separate upon it. We single out the Dutch element in the history of New York, the French element in the history of Louisiana, the Spanish influence in the far West. But these things remain from a time when Dutch and French and Spanish had their seats and their power apart and were independent rivals for the possession of the continent. Since they were fused they have given us nothing which we can distinguish as their own. The French who have come to us since that final settlement on the heights of Quebec have contributed nothing distinctive to our civilization or our order of government. The Dutch who have been immigrants amongst us since New Netherlands became New York have no doubt strengthened our

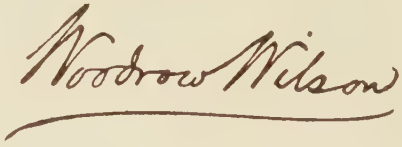
stock, but they have adopted our character and point of view. No foreign stock long keeps its identity in our affairs.

The fact should a little daunt those who make much of physical heredity and speak of the persistence of race characteristics as a thing fixed and invariable, if they are to apply their theory to communities which are dominated by one and the same national idea, and fused to make a common stock. It is where races act separately that they act in character and with individual distinction. In this again the history of the United States demonstrates the spiritual aspects of political development. Nations grow by spirit, not by blood; and nowhere can the significant principle of their growth be seen more clearly, upon a more fair and open page, than in the history of the United States. It is this principle which throws a light as if of veritable revelation upon the real nature of liberty, as a thing bred, not of institutions nor of the benevolent inventions of statesmen, but of the spiritual forces of which institutions themselves are the offspring and creation. To talk of giving to one people the liberties of another is to talk of making a gift of character, a thing built up by the contrivance of no single generation, but by the slow providence which binds generations together by a common training.

From whatever point of view you approach it, American history gives some old lesson a new plainness, clarification, and breadth. It is an offshoot of European history and has all its antecedents on the other side of the sea, and yet it is so much more than a mere offshoot. Its processes are so freshened and clarified, its records are so abundant and so accessible, it is spread upon so wide, so open, so visible a field of observation, that it seems like a plain first chapter in the history of a new age. As a stage in the economic development of modern civilization, the history of America constitutes the natural, and invaluable, subject-matter and book of praxis of the political economist. Here is industrial development worked out with incomparable logical swiftness, simplicity, and precision,—a swiftness, simplicity, and precision impossible amidst the rigid social order of any ancient kingdom. It is a study, moreover, not merely of the make-up and setting forth of a new people, but also of its marvellous expansion, of processes of growth, both spiritual and material, hurried forward from stage to stage as if under the experimental touch of some social philosopher, some political scientist making of a nation's history his laboratory and place of demonstration.

The twentieth century will show another face. The stage of America grows crowded like the stage of Europe. The life of the new world grows as complex as the life of the old. A nation hitherto wholly devoted to domestic development now finds its first task roughly finished and turns about to look curiously into the tasks of the great world at large, seeking its special

part and place of power. A new age has come which no man may forecast. But the past is the key to it; and the past of America lies at the centre of modern history.



PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY, *September* 9, 1901.

The American School of Historical Writers

By Albert Bushnell Hart,
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American History is fortunate not only in the romantic setting of its earlier periods, and in the succession of great events, momentous to mankind, but quite as much in the interest of Americans to record and to describe the development of their own country. Before the reader and the student can come into contact with his ancestors, a cohort of men must clear away the obscuring noteless facts, and must leave standing the men and women of might and influence in the history of the United States. Now hundreds of chroniclers, scores of zealous investigators, and a throng of secondary writers have taken part in the work of making their country known to itself.

Looking over the whole field of American historiography, it is easy to recognize a succession of literary impulses; first come the narratives of such discoverers and explorers as Champlain, written with many different purposes, but much alike in the freshness and life which they put into their story. A few years later, in the first half of the seventeenth century, arise a group of writers of whom Winthrop is a type, builders of commonwealths, who have left us a heritage of wisdom on the conditions of colonization. About the beginning of the eighteenth century we find conscious historians piecing together conditions and records, and trying to see the meaning and proportions of previous events; they reach from Cotton Mather to Hutchinson. Just after the Revolution, a new national self-consciousness led to several efforts to tell at some length the history of that great struggle. The beginnings of the literary period of American history, about 1830, included new and ambitious attempts to compress the whole history of the country into one systematic work: in this period George Bancroft is the most significant name. Since the Civil War a new school of historians has arisen, for

the most part choosing limited periods and treating them intensively; of these Henry Adams is a type.

At the outset must be made clear the distinction between the recorders of events and the critical analytic writers; the first, men like Columbus, are always a part of the event which they describe; while the second may look backward from a distance of centuries, as did John Fiske; but at both extremities of our national history we find some writers who combine first-hand and contemporary knowledge with the power to see the spirit animating the body politic; such were Bradford almost three centuries ago, and Ropes and Von Holst to-day. To enumerate all the good servants of America in either category is impossible; but the best and the typical may be selected.

The first discoverers and explorers not only laid the foundation on which later generations of writers have built; they also left us narratives which, in directness, simplicity, and elevation of thought, make them comparable with Herodotus and the Venerable Bede. What may be called the first school of American historians is made up of those who themselves felt the sting of the salt spray; heard the breakers beating upon mysterious shores; saw the painted savages come down to view the great white-winged monsters from which came forth a race of white men of incalculable wealth and unearthly powers; smelt the land odors from uncleared forests; and brought home pearls and beavers and savage captives. The letters of Columbus, despite some ignoble boasting and a certain sordidness which ill became so great a man, were memorials of a splendid achievement worthy of handing down to his children's children. So the narratives of Gomara and Pizarro on the conquest of Mexico and Peru give an unfading picture of the harsh, conquering race, and of that heroic spirit through which a handful overcame a multitude. The Gentleman of Elvas somehow appeals to the native American sense of humor when he tells us how De Soto was hemmed in between the Mississippi and his enemies; "and on both sides there were many Indians, and his power was not now so great, but that he had need to help himself rather by flight than by force."

The narratives of the first English explorers have the same quality of virility, intensity, and undaunted spirit. Doubtless Sir Francis Drake was a gentleman who could make a good deal of trouble to-day on a twenty-knot ship in the midst of an enemy's commerce, and he would hardly understand the niceties of the law of contraband of war; but who can help enjoying his rollicking voyage to the Pacific, with its store of unctuous enumerations of plunder: "a silver chalice, two cruets, and one altar cloth"; "thirteen bars of silver, each weighing four hundred ducats, Spanish"; "eight llamas, or sheep of Peru, every one of which sheep had on its back two bags of leather,

each bag containing fifty pound weight of fine silver"; "a chest full of royales of plate and goodly stores of silks and linen cloth"; "great riches as jewels and precious stones"; "thirteen chests full of royales of plate, fourscore pound weight of gold, and six-and-twenty ton of silver." What adventurous boy would not to-day be proud to share the life of such a pirate, and to revel in the riches of perfidious Spain?

Nor do the voyagers have all the romance of history to themselves. While the English language lives will live honest John Smith, who has been so painfully misunderstood because his historical novel, although carefully studied on the spot and singularly accurate in its setting, came early to be accepted, and has many times been criticised, as though it were sober history. It is fortunate for later generations that so many of the early worthies could either handle the pen themselves, or had a companion or scrivener to set down in order the details of whatever was strange in scenery, in inhabitants, in wild animals, and in products. Nowadays we do not realize the absolute novelty of the new world, for nowadays no part of the world is remote, except perhaps the Antarctic continent. The sense of discovery was very stimulating: men like Champlain could with equal ease explore, fight, found communities, and write the most engaging narrative; heroes like Father Jogues have left us not only a most complete account of the natives of America, but an imperishable record of the superiority of soul over such accidents as tomahawks and bone-breaking gauntlets, and red-hot coals.

In real richness, variety, and romance, American history is full, even when we compare it with the contemporary accounts of European countries; and we know actually more of the conditions, the standards, and the social life of the American Indians in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries than we know of the life of the English, French, or German peasantry of that time. What wonder if the early writers were a little hampered by the attempt to describe a new barbarism in terms of an old civilization? Why should not the early historian make an "emperor" out of a naked savage who had at least the physical power to sweep the Europeans off the new continent if he chose? Was it not natural that "kings" and "princesses" and "noblemen" should stalk out of lodges that really held unclean and untrustworthy savages? To Virginia, to New Amsterdam, to New England, the Indians were a mighty military power, often superior in battle, and all but victorious in the great campaign which lasted more than a hundred years. If the red man had had the musket, and the white man the bow and arrow, we should to-day be writing the history of the United States "as the lion would have painted it." In these contemporary narratives, many of them interfused with fancy, and few recognizing the real squalor, degradation, and sinfulness of savage life, we have a great cycle of historical material

told in the simplest historical fashion; and this is the first school of writers of American history.

As soon as English colonization actually begins, we find a second group of writers of whom two, Bradford and Winthrop, stand pre-eminent; men who recorded the annals of the time in the full faith that we to-day should carefully read them, and should find disclosed in them the soul of the earliest commonwealths. It is of great significance that throughout the colonies, and especially in New England, there were highly educated men capable of leaving a record, reasonably accurate, and phrased in the big, broad, rugged English of the time. If one of the objects of the historian is to discover motives, what can be more significant than Bradford's long and analytic account of the reasons for the foundation of Plymouth plantation? The opening words of the "Of Plimoth Plantation" seem like the stately gateway to an epic. "And first of the occasion and inducements thereunto, the which that I may truly unfold I must begin at the very root and rise of the same. The which I shall endeavor to manifest in a plain style with sincere regard unto the simple truth in all things, at least as near as my slender judgment can attain the same." In this manuscript, covering the period 1608–1645, so carefully written, so long preserved, used by Prince, Hubbard, Cotton Mather, and Hutchinson, to disappear, and to come to light again in the palace of the Bishop of London at Fulham, almost in our own day—in this precious memorial, we have the first attempt at a consciously reasoned history of America. Bradford tells only that part which he knew; he depended upon his own memory and the immediate communications of his friends; but the book is a remarkable account of what we now call the constitutional history of the community. Indeed, there is much in Bradford to reward the student of mankind, the sociologist, the economist, the lawyer, the ecclesiastical historian, and the lover of picturesque narrative. Here we have the foundations of an English colony and the growth of its polity, the slow building of the walls of a government which was at the same time a municipality; here we read of Indian wars, stratagems, powwows, and peacemakings; here is the record of an important experiment in communism, ending like all such experiments in the final parceling out to individuals of such territory and property as was left. We learn something of what emigrants' food and quarters were on board ship, while crossing the Atlantic; we have an insight into fisheries and agriculture and trade, and interest and profit at "the rate of cento per cento"; and in the midst of affairs we have the splendid story of calm, resolute, unshrinking men, slowly piecing together a political community and preparing the way for the later United States.

The other great historical writer of this period, John Winthrop, is far less

systematic and argumentative. An annalist and yet possessed of a keen sense of selection, in the midst of much that is trivial and some things that reveal the intense Puritan curiosity about things better left undisturbed, he still deals in the main with the imposing problems of free government. The staples of his history are the interplay of man against man, of class with class, the rivalries of the grave magistracy with the pushing General Court; the final compromise by which a legislature of two houses was organized in Massachusetts. In his story of the period from 1630 to 1648, he gives us not simply crude materials, but a description of the farthermost bases of American political ideas, as worked out on American soil.

Bradford and Winthrop are by no means the only men of that period who deal with events as the warp and woof of a systematic narrative. Captain Edward Johnson, in his *Wonder Working Providence of Sion's Saviour,* published in 1654, essays what he calls a *History of New England,* from those beginnings "when England began to decline in religion like lukewarm Laodicea," till "these soldiers of Christ first stood on this western end of the world." But Johnson and other writers of similar worthy purposes had neither the literary skill nor the sense of continuity for which Bradford and Winthrop are remarkable. No others left a well-founded and well-knit narrative extending over so many years. No others felt so clearly that they were both upbuilders and recorders of their own upbuilding .

For the inner life of most of the New England settlements besides Plymouth and Massachusetts, there is a painful dearth of contemporary narrative. The histories of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire have to be pieced out of scattered and minute references in journals and public records. It is much the same in the middle and southern colonies; except for the vivacious accounts of the settlers of the Jerseys and Pennsylvania, written by Gabriel Thomas and others, there is hardly any contemporary history of the middle colonies, though much material for history. On the foundations of Virginia and Maryland there are interesting contemporary notices by Strachey, John Smith, Wingfield, White, and others; but no man writes with the feeling that he is drawing out the real meaning of the events which he describes, for the use of later generations; no man foresees the oak which is to spring from his acorn. The separate history of the Carolinas came much later and must be collated from many scattered narratives. When Georgia was founded in the eighteenth century, the historical sense was more developed, and of that colony there are several excellent contemporary accounts.

We must leap across more than half a century from the end of Bradford

and Winthrop's histories to reach a third school made up of local historians and annalists, most of whom have now become simply material for later writers. Of these the first and the worst is Cotton Mather, whose *magnum opus* is the *Magnalia Christi Americana, or the Ecclesiastical History of New England,* first published in 1702. It would be hard to cap this singular production for whimsicality, variety of contents, and treatment; it is everything except history. To Cotton Mather's mind nothing came amiss: tradition, rumor, gossip, memory, experiences, every-day facts, were all equally put to his service. So far as a naturally keen and well-practised memory could go, he sounded and verified these various sources, but it was not in his mind to reject a statement because he could not show it to be probably true. The make-up of the book is a monument to the perverted learning of the time. Anagrams, prefatory poems, attestations, introductory poems, general introductions, epitaphs, old sermons pitchforked in, little biographies, contemporary letters, squibs, polemic pamphlets, dialogues, prophecies, the last dying speeches of criminals, wonderful prodigies, and "remarkables" of Indian wars—all was fish that came to Mather's net; and it is one of the tasks of the present-day historian to delve in the many fonts of type of this ponderous book in order to discover how much is truth, how much prejudice, and how much downright error.

Contemporary with Mather is the first really good local history, Beverley's *History of Virginia,* published about 1705; and it is worth noting that Beverley had in his mind the modern conception that history includes a view of the social conditions and standards of the time. He makes it his business not only to describe the foundings of the commonwealth of Virginia, for which he had to depend on material made by others, but also to tell us of the products, the social institutions, the education, and the labor system of his time. Here we have really the first example of an American history, written not from personal experiences, or from the memory of those who had gone through such experiences, but from printed and even written records, or at least from a restatement of such printed narratives as he could find.

Beverley set an example which unfortunately was followed by few writers of his century. To be sure there are some other agreeable books of the same kind: Smith's *History of New Jersey,* published in 1765; William Smith's *History of New York,* written in the eighteenth century, though not published till many years later; Stith's *Virginia* (to 1624), published in 1747; and several ecclesiastical histories of merit, especially Neal and Backus. But these writers are independent of each other, are local and had but a limited circle of readers. One man deserves to be specially noticed because he made it his task to accumulate small details, and was the first to establish many of the accepted conventions of American history. Thomas Prince,

in the preparation of his *Annals,* published from 1736 to 1755, made a collection of documents which served him as the basis for a chronological conspectus of the history of New England, which, unluckily, reached only to 1633. Like his follower, Abiel Holmes, he has long since been forgotten, except by specialists; the work of both Prince and Holmes was that of laying rough stones which are hidden out of sight by the finished structure.

The first general historian of America upon the model of the three great contemporary English writers, Hume, Robertson, and Gibbon, was Thomas Hutchinson in his *History of Massachusetts Bay.* An official, a man of property, of high connections, much experiences in town and colonial government, he began to publish in 1764. His second volume was published three years later, when the storm-cloud of the Revolution was already gathering. A third volume, which includes the unhappy history of the pre-revolutionary controversies, did not appear till long after his death. In Hutchinson as in Prince, we have a study of historical sources, though very limited in kind; he seems scarcely to have known that there were manuscript records of the lower house of the Massachusetts legislature, and his history is directly founded on private papers and the records of the governor and council. What is really important in Hutchinson is his attempt to write a history in a narrative form, covering a century and a half, which should deal with events in their right proportions, and in which he should also apply the same methods of judgment and segregation to a period within which he had himself lived. Nobody now reads Hutchinson for his style, and his account of early Massachusetts is long since surpassed, but the experience of the trained public man gives a permanent value to his conclusions, and his is distinctly a genuine historian's work.

Among the evidences of a quickened national consciousness was the growth of a new school of historians immediately after the Revolution. Among them were several notable historians of a single commonwealth—Proud's *Pennsylvania,* Trumbull's *Connecticut,* Burk's *Virginia,* and—far the best of them all—Belknap's *New Hampshire.* At the same time arose several conscientious and hard-working writers, who wrought upon the history of their country, taking into view not a colony nor a section, but the whole nation; and they also conceived the modern idea of choosing a limited field and treating it with thoroughness and in detail. Of these the most notable are Ramsay, Mercy Warren, and Timothy Pitkin. Dr. Ramsay, whose book, published in 1811, describes much of the military side of the Revolution, and includes an invaluable discussion of the effects of that great struggle on the political and social life of Americans. Mercy Warren was the first woman to publish a narrative history, which, however one-sided, was written

by an eye-witness, and that eye-witness a woman of high education and great spirit. It was this able person, called by her friends the Marcia of the American Revolution, who ventured to attack the great John Adams and accused him of leaning towards monarchism. Better than all the others is honest Pitkin, whose history, published in 1828, covers with clearness and insight the history of the foundation of the American republic from 1763 to 1797, with a few foot-notes referring to the scanty sources available at that time. Pitkin had a strong liking for statistics, and his books remained until up to a few years ago almost the only well-thought discussion of the political and economic conditions of the colonies, as a background for a discussion of the causes of the Revolution.

Besides these important studies of material at first-hand, the great libraries contain many so-called histories of the United States, published in the first third of the nineteenth century. It seems to have been a habit of the New England country clergy to combine with the country newspapers to produce a history; the parson furnished scissors, paste, and circumambient rhetoric, and produced a manuscript chiefly out of extracts from his predecessors; the printer set it up on the off days when the week's paper was printed and copy for the next had not yet appeared. This process, not unknown in later and wiser generations, adds nothing to American historiography and needs no further description.

Although up to 1830 there had appeared no account of the development of America which is now read as a classic, and still less any first-hand American history of a foreign country—the foundations were laying upon which historians might safely build. During the whole time from the beginning of the Revolution down, materials were being collected and made available, without which the work of Hildreth and Bancroft would have been impossible. It is the happy fortune of America that the great men of the revolutionary period either kept copies of their letters or wrote such important documents that they were preserved by those who received them. In the letters of Washington and Franklin, of John Jay, of Jefferson, of Madison, of Monroe, and a score of other revolutionary worthies, we find the true spirit of their times, and in 1791, Dr. Jeremy Belknap, himself the author of the excellent history of New Hampshire, founded in Boston the Massachusetts Historical Society, the first in time of a long series of public-spirited organizations, whose aim it has been to collect memorials which would otherwise perish, and to put them in permanent form for later generations.

Our ancestors have always been rather tenacious of public records, partly because of the importance of such evidence in settling questions of property, and partly from an instinctive feeling that what they were doing was worth remembrancing. It is this sense of doing something worth while which

finds expression in the famous resolutions of the Cambridge town meeting in 1765: "that this vote be recorded in the town book that the children yet unborn might see the desire their ancestors had for their freedom and happiness." Accident, neglect, the Revolutionary War, caused the loss of many precious records, especially in the South, but enough remained to make an almost inexhaustible mine for the antiquary and investigator. Three different influences were brought to bear side by side with each other to effect the publication of historical material: the historical societies; the state governments, in many cases animated by the societies; and the strong historical spirit of a few investigators. Of these latter, the chief is Jared Sparks, who published his edition of the *Writings of Washington* in 1836, followed by his *Franklin's Works,* and by his *Correspondence of the American Revolution;* he also established a series of brief biographies, all of them edited and several written by Mr. Sparks. It is hard to overestimate the influence of this man, endued as he was with an immense capacity to take advantage of his great opportunities. According to the historical canons of his time he was a most intelligent editor; he thought it his duty to correct the mistakes of grammar or expression in the originals before him, so that he might more clearly bring out the sense; and it wounded him that the Father of his Country should misspell. Sparks's editions, therefore, overlay the originals with literary shellac and varnish, but he does not conceal the original grain. Himself a conscientious investigator, a careful historical writer, he combines within his own achievements three historical triumphs: he opened up great evidences of truth; he was the first exemplar of the co-operative method of writing history; and he was himself no mean author.

Upon the foundations thus laid, and infused with that lively national spirit which began to be distinctly felt after the War of 1812, there now appears a writer who had a combination, almost unexampled in America up to that time, of an historian's qualities: ambition, training, wealth, social connections, political experience, and an intense desire to write a history of his country from its earliest beginnings down to the end of his own time. That man was George Bancroft, who, beginning his self-imposed task about 1830, in 1883 was still systematically engaged on it. A whole cycle of national history had passed by between the beginning and end of his work, and his fifty years of labor was enough only to bring him from the discovery of America down to the adoption of the federal Constitution in 1788.

Here at least was a different conception of history, so different from those who preceded him that he became the founder of a new school. Besides a capacity for vast labor, Bancroft created a machinery for the assembling of material up to that time unknown in America: he sent all over the world

for transcripts of documents; he collected a valuable library; as Secretary of the Navy under Polk, he had opportunities for intimate acquaintance with the archives of the federal government; he wrote patiently, and repeatedly rewrote his own work, which in its most elaborated form includes twelve good-sized volumes. That Bancroft is to-day rather the companion of the scholar than of the patriot reader is not strange; he began and carried on his work in the midst of an atmosphere of what may be called professional history; his intellectual predecessor was Robertson; his intellectual compeers were Macaulay and Prescott. He wrote to be read and chose the style which most attracted readers half a century ago; he wrote to justify his fathers for the Revolution, and his mind was quicker to grasp the grievances of the colonies than the difficulties of the English administration. A sincere and honest man whose public service has been enormous, Bancroft is now neglected by readers, and his example is avoided by writers. It is unfortunate for Bancroft's permanent fame that a considerable part of his work has no foot-notes; his reason was that other people followed him on his authorities, without giving him credit; he thus cut off not only a means of checking his conclusions, but also a useful aid to inquirers. Bancroft has often been charged with rearranging and docking his quotations. His habit of referring to many materials available only in his own collection of transcripts makes it difficult to examine this charge, but where he refers to printed materials he does not seem consciously to have altered the sense of a quotation by omission or transposition.

Side by side with Bancroft is a writer much less known and much less appreciated, who nevertheless has deserved well of his countrymen—Richard Hildreth, who attempted the same task as Bancroft, and in six volumes, the last of them published in 1856, brought down his history from the earliest colonial times to 1820. In many respects Hildreth more nearly approaches to the modern standard of the historian than any one who preceded or accompanied him. He has such a grasp of facts and so well knows how to assemble them, and to discriminate among them, that almost any event of large importance that has happened in our history is mentioned in his volumes. He, too, had his thesis to prove; strongly federalist in sympathy, his later volumes are to a considerable degree a justification of the Hamiltonian theory of government; and like Bancroft, he does not see fit to append those foot-notes which are a restraint upon a writer, an opportunity to examine his ground, and a useful equipment for later investigators.

Only one other general history of the United States in the period from 1830 to 1860 need be mentioned here. Tucker's *History of the United States,* published in 1857 and covering the period from 1774 to 1841, is the only work of the kind written by a Southern man. Just why most of the

history-writing down to the Civil War was done by New England men is not easy to discover; traditional interest in history, good libraries, the influence of a live State historical society, the nearness of a book-buying public, the close connection between literary and public life—these are some of the reasons. Tucker aimed to look at our history from a different angle, but he has little of the method or style of the trained historian, he does not attract the reader, and is less quoted than his careful work deserves.

So far, most of the interest of American writers had been given to their own country; it was a mark of a growth in cosmopolitanism when two writers chose for their themes fields of European history, though in both cases there was a connection with American history in its wider aspects. Prescott chose first the Spaniards in America, and then the Spanish monarchy in the sixteenth century. In his time he was considered one of the safest as well as one of the most brilliant historical writers. Brilliant he is, and he chose for his theme the romantic period which connected European civilization with the earliest phases of American history. His *Ferdinand and Isabella,* his *Conquest of Peru,* his *Conquest of Mexico,* his *Charles V.,* his *Philip II.*, published during the two decades from 1837 to 1858, were read with interest and enthusiasm by scholars, business men, and school-boys, just as Macaulay was read at the same time both in England and America. In every way he is a notable figure, this man almost blind, working patiently year after year in his Boston library and slowly committing to the press his beautifully written volumes, which are still among our best historical works, although the methods of the author and his judgment of his sources are no longer accepted as final.

Motley came a little later, chose a similar theme, but without a direct connection with American history. His *Dutch Republic,* his *United Netherlands,* his *John of Barneveld,* have been sources of inspiration to thousands of readers; and if the maturer student now searches them in vain for any insight into the organization of the marvellous military people whom he described; if he finds little about their colonies and nothing about their government; if he learns not the source of their wealth, nor the secret of their national persistence, he does get a striking picture of the heroism of the later-day Athenians contending against the Persians of the sixteenth century. Motley was really not an historian, but a describer of mighty historic deeds.

Motley began to publish in 1856, and continued long after the Civil War, but he belongs to the ante-bellum school, and that school, notwithstanding its great services, had as yet treated history only in partial fashion. Materials were collected and much learning was expended in explaining and annotating them and in brief articles and papers founded upon them. Upon the other side, several ambitious attempts had been made to give in one con-

spectus an account of what was most noteworthy in the whole history of the nation. A school of biographers had also arisen, some of whom had published elaborate works like the painfully minute Rives's *Madison;* or history was grouped about the life of one individual as in Marshall's *Washington,* or Irving's *Columbus.* As yet, however, there was little grouping of great masses of related facts in monographs, and few examples of historians who took a brief period as their whole field.

For some years after the Civil War, Motley and Bancroft were still the noted American historians, and the development of a new spirit in history is due first of all to the achievements of another writer, whose work, though begun long before, was ended only in 1885. Francis Parkman is the greatest of all the writers who have ever made America their theme or have written as American scholars, and his greatness depends upon three qualities rarely brought together in one man; he was a matchless investigator, a man of the most unflinching tenacity, and somehow he knew how to write so that men loved to read him. His method was that of the special field, long enough in his case, but narrow in geographical dimensions. He wrote upon what he himself called "the history of the woods," upon the century and a half of hostile contact between the French colonists and the English colonists, accentuated by the fierce savages who were between them.

Back of the romance of history was the romance of Parkman's own life. One of the most unassuming and modest men who ever lived, he went on his way without seeming to know that he was a hero; but in an autobiographical fragment, drawn up in 1868, he has revealed the inner man. At the age of eighteen he had formed the splendid plan of his history, all of which he lived to complete, and while still a young man he made that adventurous overland trip to Oregon, which is faithfully commemorated in his *Oregon Trail,* published in 1851, an account of a journey intended to give him an "inside view of Indian life." He returned with a physique naturally feeble, further weakened by the hardships of the prairie, and resulting in a state which he describes as follows: "The conditions were threefold: an extreme weakness of sight, disabling him even from writing his name except with eyes closed; a condition of the brain prohibiting fixed attention except at occasional and brief intervals; and an exhaustion and total derangement of the nervous system, producing of necessity a condition of mind most unfavorable to effort." After 1851, he says that there had not been "any waking hour when he has not been in some degree conscious of the presence of the malady"; although later "the condition of the sight has so far improved as to permit reading, not exceeding, on an average, five minutes at a time. . . . By reading that amount and

then resting for an equal time, this alternative process could generally be continued for about half an hour, then, after a sufficient interval, it would be repeated, even three or four times in the course of the day." It was thus that large parts of his literary monument were prepared; and the difficulties but enhanced the result, for they make it evident that it is not the fascination of the subject, nor the pleasure of breaking new ground, nor the careful preparation of material that fix Parkman as the greatest of all American historians, but the soaring spirit, which had its message to tell and could not be fettered.

Parkman is a kind of bridge between the older and the newer school of historians, for he began with the same traditions as Bancroft and Hildreth, and he furnished a model and an impetus for Henry Adams, McMaster, Winsor, Rhodes, and Roosevelt. Before describing the more recent group of writers, most of them still living, it is necessary to show what an awakening came over the country in historical matters during and after the Civil War. If it be true that interest in athletic sports and open-air life is to be traced from the Virginia and Georgia campaigns, it is equally true that, just as in the post-revolutionary period, the country awoke after 1865 to a new sense of the dignity and importance of its own history and institutions. This consciousness took form in various directions: first, in the systematic training of young men to be writers and teachers of history; second, in the appearance of a new literature of carefully wrought monographs, resembling though usually superior to the German doctors' dissertations; and third, in the devotion of their lives to historical writing by a new series of historians.

Most of the elder historical schools in America from the days of Bradford and Winthrop down to Hildreth and Palfrey were made up of college-bred men; and most of the writers are grouped about one little New England college. Winthrop was a founder of Harvard; Hutchinson, a graduate, Bancroft, Hildreth, Parkman, Belknap, Prescott, Motley, were its sons; Jared Sparks, its president. And yet that college made no effort, and no other college made effort, to train young men in historical methods, and very little was done to instruct them in historical data. Each successful writer was his own teacher, and handed down few traditions. In several of the colleges were intelligent and highly educated men, who taught history by hearing formal recitations from a dull text-book; but the creative and inspiring side of teaching commonly went into mental and moral philosophy.

Early in the seventies arose two fishers of men, Charles Kendall Adams in the University of Michigan, and Henry Adams in Harvard University, and about the same time began a new system of graduate instruction in Johns Hopkins University, where for twenty-five years Herbert B. Adams was

the inciter of historical teachers and writers. All these men, and others who speedily followed them, made it their task, not only to inform their students, but also to make them searchers for truth. Henry Adams had the habit on the first day of the term of deliberately frightening out of his course all but the most eager and undaunted students; and from the residuum he built up an enthusiastic company of able young men. He edited and published a volume of essays on Anglo-Saxon Law, prepared under his guidance by students whose names have since been attached to many more formal works; but he grew tired of enforcing historical truths through other people, and he withdrew to the ten years' labor of preparation of his masterpiece. Charles Kendall Adams, at the University of Michigan, introduced with some useful modifications the German seminary method, and he also sent out students imbued with his methods, to be college professors and presidents. This was also the method steadily and effectively applied at Johns Hopkins, and the young men trained there have been widely distributed throughout the country.

In 1877, Justin Winsor came to Harvard, and so long as he lived he was the greatest force for historical learning in his university. This remarkable man in many ways resembled Sparks; he was a great organizer, and as librarian of the Boston Public Library and of the Harvard College Library furnished models to the world of libraries in which the main purpose was to have books used. As an editor and historical writer he has left three series and various independent volumes; but one of his greatest services to learning was his untiring interest in the young men and young women, students of history, who came under his influence. Himself a man of method and accustomed to deal with great masses of material and to draw from them his conclusions, he infused into all those who came into contact with him the spirit of scientific historical work. Perhaps Mr. Winsor's chief claim to eminence in his craft was his profound acquaintance with practical bibliography, not only a knowledge of books, but a consciousness of what books are important, a power of discrimination; and upon the period of American history from discovery to the War of 1812, his *Narrative and Critical History* is an example of broad scholarship applied with high intelligence to the service of science. Although he gave but few college courses, Mr. Winsor was in effect a teacher and a trainer, as well as a librarian and an author, and he drew into his co-operative labors the most ardent young men.

Mr. Winsor's labors were to a large degree monographic. He secured from various other people short studies of episodes and movements, all founded upon a minute study of sources, and each annotated by the author and supplemented by Mr. Winsor's own unfathomable learning, with precise

references to the original material. Similar monographic work has for twenty years been going on all over the country and particularly in the universities. Following the example of Johns Hopkins, other universities after 1880 founded special graduate schools and developed systematic instruction and preparation looking towards the degree of Ph.D. The fledgling doctors were expected to write theses, and their results, in most cases printed, constituted a new stratum in the historical materials of America. In many instances they were published in separate volumes, like Woodrow Wilson's *Congressional Government;* others were grouped in various series, of which the oldest is the *Johns Hopkins Studies,* comprising a volume every year since 1883, and thus has been furnished an opportunity of reaching the world on a subject which did not stimulate the ordinary publisher, or commend itself to the magazine editor.

Later, other institutions took up the system: Columbia University, the University of Pennsylvania, the University of Michigan, the University of Wisconsin, the University of Nebraska, Cornell University, Brown University, Harvard University, and other institutions have taken the responsibility for the publication of single or grouped studies, often representing the well-directed labor of several years. Here many historical writers who have later blossomed out into more general literary work have tried their prentice hands; here young men and young women have the opportunity to put upon record evidence of their power to deal with historical subjects, an evidence often of much service to them through the effect which it may have upon the mind of the college presidents and other grandees who have the power to hold out the golden sceptre. In such monographs the residuary results, drawn from the distilling of great masses of otherwise undigested material, are made available for other writers. The stream of such publications goes on unceasingly, and their character tends to improve as the opportunities for study and for direction from older men increase. The better writers outgrow their doctor's theses, and sometimes wonder that their judgments were ever so crude; but the result is an opening up of fields of great importance which had long remained untilled.

For example, until a few years ago there was nowhere to be found any account, based upon the sources, of Presidential elections, of the Speakership of the House of Representatives, or of the Senate, or of the veto power, or of Congressional committees, or of the actual system for nomination for office; the student of American institutions has now the benefit of careful studies in all these subjects: and it is worth noting that within this field of practical politics some of the best work of collecting and generalizing from the scattered materials has been done by women. Twenty years ago there was almost nothing in the way of careful, first-hand studies of the slavery ques-

tion; now we have able monograpns on various individual commonwealths, on fugitive slaves, on slavery in the District of Columbia, on the slave-trade, and on the underground railroad—nearly every one a result of scientific study under the direction or impetus of college teachers.

The system of monographs has done much to make the conditions and the merits of historical writing widely known. Where half a century ago one man knew how to write an acceptable historical narrative, forty persons have now had some experience. One of the influences which has done much to stimulate investigation in limited topics has been the American Historical Association, founded in 1884. In its two functions of holding meetings at which younger men are brought into association with older writers, and of printing an annual report in which shorter or longer papers may be printed and distributed to an impatient world, the Association has made the path of young writers easier; and its list of presidents has included most of the foremost historical writers of the time.

The most widely known and most useful series of monographs, a revival of Sparks's idea of brief biographies by experts, is the widely read *American Statesman Series*, which is edited, and of which several volumes have been written by John T. Morse, Jr. Similar to it in scope are the *American Men of Letters, Makers of America, Beacon Biographies* and other like combinations, all in principle an attempt to tell the story of a brief period through the lives of public men who stood for a dominant idea.

Under modern conditions one of the measures of the interest in a science is the kind of journals which are created to represent it. In many respects the publications of the various state and local historical societies have for more than a century been sober periodicals; besides the more special issues of *Collections*, such societies annually print *Transactions*, or *Records* which contain briefer and less imposing matter, and in several cases, as for example the Pennsylvania Historical Society, this publication has not only the character but the form of a magazine. From the founding of Carey's *American Museum*, in 1787, and especially after the establishment of the *North American Review*, in 1815, there has always been a medium for historical articles, often elaborate enough to be monographs. Not till 1857 was there a periodical devoted entirely to history; Dawson's *Historical Magazine*, which kept up a respectable existence till 1875. Then followed the *Magazine of American History* from 1877 to 1896.

These were both private enterprises, which were able to get very little aid and comfort from the established historical writers of the time, and they received little that was significant from the new race of monographists. In 1895, a journal was founded under the title of the *American Historical Review*, with the express purpose of uniting scattered historical forces, of

dealing with all fields and phases of history, and of offering an opportunity for the publication of the result of the latest scholarships. Through a relation established with the American Historical Association in 1898, the circulation and influence of this review were much increased, and history remains one of the few great fields of learning in America on which rival universities have not established rival and struggling journals.

The illustrated magazines of the time, and the political reviews also give scope for historical articles, often of great excellence, by able hands, and in many cases drawn out into a series which eventually becomes a book. No historical writer, young or old, need suffer for a medium through which to make his conclusions known, provided he really has conclusions worth drawing; and in the pages of the special and general periodicals future writers of history will find a fund of valuable materials.

The connection of history with universities has had some admirable effects; among them has been an intimate relation between the profession of teaching history and the profession of writing history. The American historians of half a century ago were, with few exceptions, *littérateurs,* men of private station and of private means, who gave up a large part of their lives to historical writing for the love of scholarly occupation and the hope of fame. The collection of materials was a tedious and expensive task; they were the men who had the time and money to travel afar, in order to get the proper horizon, and to make some acquaintance with other countries and languages. In the Sparks manuscripts, in the Parkman manuscripts and the Bancroft manuscripts, are many extracts copied from records not available in print. A man sat down to write a history as he now sits down to found a review, with ambition as a frontlet and with money in his pocket. Sometimes good Uncle Sam gave them a diplomatic position in which they might pursue their investigations; thus Prescott was made Minister to Spain, Motley to the Netherlands, Bancroft to Germany.

The growth of scientific instruction in history has developed a new race of historical writers who have gone forth to supersede the older type; among the present best-known American writers upon history, McMaster is a professor in a university, Schouler is a lecturer in a university, Charles Francis Adams is a most ardent overseer of a college, John Fiske was once an instructor in history in a college and a college librarian, Von Holst was a professor, Moses Coit Tyler was a professor, and Winsor was a college librarian. This academic connection is the more striking when we remember that in pure literature the most noted writers to-day have mostly come up outside university precincts and are little associated with college life.

Some reasons for the taking up of formal history by college men are obvious; since the scientific basis of history has become recognized, history is

more likely to be undertaken by those who have had a scientific training and a scientific opportunity. From the other direction, the publication of an excellent history often leads to a call which for the rest of a man's days connects him with some college: thus McMaster's first volume led to his transference from an instructorship in mathematics to a professorship in American history. It has become a tradition that the university professor of history ought to have part of his time for literary duties, and he often has the use of superior libraries. Perhaps the best explanation is simply that preparation for classes and preparation for publication run on all fours with each other; and the enthusiasms of both pursuits are alike.

All explanations, however, fail to account for the fact that among the many American teachers of ancient, mediæval, continental, and English history, hardly a single one is at work on a *magnum opus* in his own field: so far, text-books, brief histories, or an account of an episode, are all that have been exhibited. While Doyle and Lecky and Trevelyan place themselves among the best writers on American affairs, what American professor has undertaken a history of England, or of any part of it, as a life-long task? The few considerable pieces of such work do not come from the universities at all: Henry C. Lea is a publisher; Hannis Taylor's *England*, James Breck Perkins's *France*, Tom Watson's bizarre *France*, a kind of etherealized Georgia, are written by hard-working lawyers or politicians; William R. Thayer has made Italian history his theme, and Professor Charles M. Andrews is author of a history of modern Europe; while Professor Sloane's best-known work is his *Napoleon*: they alone of American historians of Europe are in close touch with universities.

Two remarkable exceptions must be noted to the general rule, that the more noted living writers of history are given up to American history. Captain Mahan has so far chosen to write chiefly on the naval history of Great Britain; but aside from the interest of the trained naval officer in that country which has taught the world most about fighting at sea, he has really in mind a principle of national polity which he thinks his countrymen ought to keep in mind; he is an American writing for the instruction, first of all, of America, and then of all mankind. Henry C. Lea, in his studies of ecclesiasticism, and especially in his *History of the Inquisition*, has shown a rare cosmopolitan spirit.

In general it is safe to say that the chief interest of American historical writers is in the affairs of their own country, and almost all the living writers give themselves up to a distinct and limited area. Perhaps no competent scholar will ever write a complete history of America from the sources; the last attempt was Winsor's, and he was unable, even by his skilful use of the co-operative method, to get much beyond the beginning of the nineteenth

century. Each man now assumes that he may begin on the foundations laid by somebody else. John Fiske has, in his own method, traversed the ground of Bancroft and Hildreth, to the adoption of the Constitution. Edward Eggleston has chosen the era of commonwealth building. James Schouler has written a history in six volumes, extending from the end of the Revolution to the end of the Civil War. Professor McMaster has chosen the same beginning, and appears to look forward to about the same date for his end. Rhodes has chosen to begin at 1850, long enough before the Civil War, so that he may make plain the reason for that titanic struggle, and he expects to bring the work down to a point near the present day. Henry Adams chose the sixteen years, 1801–1817, from the inauguration of Jefferson to the end of Madison's administration, and having finished that period has apparently abandoned further historical writing.

No attempt has been made in this article to enumerate all the good writers in or on America, for the aim is to describe tendencies and not men; and prophecies as to what is to be accomplished by the fledglings would only cause distrust in the prophet's judgment. It is, however, safe to say that, through a long process of development, in which the recorders of history and the critics of historical events have united to bring together a vast body of materials, we have now reached a point where there is a permanent body of active, highly trained, ambitious writers of history who, with the aid of the monographers, the patient earth-worms who prepare soil to bear fruit, constitute what may not unreasonably be called the American School of Historical Writing.

One of the leading spirits in this favored present was the late John Fiske. Gibbon is like the march of an army; legion after legion, cohort after cohort, trumpets fanfaring at regular intervals, horses cavalcading, all glowing in shining armor; perhaps Fiske might be compared to a holiday procession, men singers and women singers, both young men and maidens, flutes, harps, and psalteries, and children dancing in the rear. There is a wholesome, sunny serenity about his volumes; he does not go very deeply into the *Weltschmerz,* but he tells the story so that he who runs may read. His books are the books of the prosperous man, who likes to see the evidence of healthy growth in his country.

Perhaps illustration may be clearer than statement on this point.

Five living writers of American history stand out plainly as the present heads of their craft: Herman von Holst, Henry Adams, Henry C. Lea, Alfred T. Mahan, and James Ford Rhodes; what they do is the best that is now being done.

Von Holst has finished his labor of thirty years, on what is substantially a history of the slavery contest from 1828 to 1860. He fights the battle

over again, for he loves intensity. His chief service has been to bring home to Americans the inevitableness of a contest, after the traditional principles of free government were so violently contradicted by slavery. A good hater, a powerful hitter, Von Holst has done much to break in pieces the conventional apotheosis of our public men, and to lead us to see the real elements of the Civil War.

Henry Adams seems to have given up historical writing; a man of independent fortune, he likes to diverge around the world and to give sage advice to young politicians. He need never put pen to paper again in order to assure his reputation as one of the world's great historical narrators. It is his forte to be at the same time scientific, careful, and imaginative, to penetrate the intricacies of complex characters, to seize the spirit of bygone times; his is the study of motive, the discerning of guiding principles of national character. He has almost a lordly disregard of his own foot-notes; he gives a reference, not because he feels the need of a backer, but because he has so many reserves that he may give them or withhold them as he pleases. His style, less absorbing than Parkman's, is equally limpid, almost equally effective.

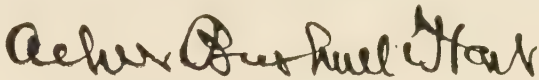
Henry C. Lea has chosen a theme apparently remote from our participation: his three great works are histories of the monastic orders, of torture, and of the Inquisition. Steady, sane, infinitely painstaking, resolute, and impartial, he is a model of the careful habits of the business man applied to the ascertaining of historical truth; his books are interesting, they are just, they are permanent. In interest of subject, in insight of investigation, in the power to reach and state conclusions, and in style, he stands among the best of American historical writers, and exemplifies the value of the study of other peoples and their civilization.

Captain Mahan is the only American military or naval officer to win distinction as an historical writer. His theme in all his books is the Sea Power, the strength of the naval country: to impress that power on the reader he masses his argument and illustrations; and he has carried the world; he has altered the purposes of mankind.

Rhodes is the latest knight to besiege the enchanted castle of literary fame, and he is the only one of the four who reveals the intellectual forces that lie outside the colleges; only a short time a college student, never a college teacher, brought up to business in a bustling Western city, he has wooed both Lady Fortune and the muse of history, and both have smiled upon him. His most characteristic merits are his care, his impartiality, his clear and readable style, and, above all, his ability to discover the ruling motives of a people in a time of passionate stress.

The impression made upon the observer of historical writing is hopeful.

Our greatest historian, Parkman, lives only in his imperishable books; but leaving him out, there has never been an American historian equal to the best living writers in training, in conception of what historical research means, in discrimination, in insight, or in genuine historical style. Where are the poets to replace Lowell and Longfellow and Whittier? Where are the essayists to equal Emerson? Where the novelists to measure height with Hawthorne? Yet in historical writing the authors of the golden age give way to the present American School in popularity among readers, and in usefulness to scholars; and perhaps some day a new generation of authors may arise to whom the historians of this quarter-century will give God-speed.



HARPERS' ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

A.

A1, a symbol used in the record of American and foreign shipping and in Lloyd's *Register of British and Foreign Shipping*, in rating vessels for insurance. A1 is the highest. Hence A1 is used of the highest mercantile credit, and, colloquially, A1 is first-class, first-rate.

A. B. Plot. See page 11.

Abbadie, M. D', royal governor; born about 1710; came to America in 1763 to take charge of a variety of business interests that King Louis XV. had established in New Orleans, and also to exercise the authority of military commander of the province. Owing to the sale of Louisiana to Spain, he was directed in 1764 to turn over his command to a Spanish official. He was a man of noble impulses, had protected the Indians, caused the masters to treat their slaves more kindly, and in many ways had endeared himself to the people of the province. The surrender of his command to those whom he regarded as enemies grieved him so seriously that he died Feb. 4, 1765. See LOUISIANA; NEW ORLEANS.

Abbe, CLEVELAND, meteorologist; born in New York, Dec. 3, 1838. He was graduated at the College of the City of New York in 1857; studied astronomy with Brunnow at Ann Arbor, Mich., and with Gould at Cambridge, Mass.; and, after serving four years in the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, he became director of the Cincinnati Observatory in 1868. The value of his local weather reports induced the United States government to establish a weather bureau. He was appointed meteorologist to the UNITED STATES SIGNAL SERVICE (*q. v.*) in 1871, and in 1879 became meteorologist to the UNITED STATES WEATHER BUREAU (*q. v.*).

Abbett, LEON, statesman; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 8, 1836; removed to New Jersey in 1859; member of the State Assembly 1869–70, and Senate 1875–78; elected governor of New Jersey, 1883 and 1889; appointed judge of the New Jersey Supreme Court in 1893. He died in Jersey City, Dec. 4, 1894.

Abbey, EDWIN AUSTIN, painter; born in Philadelphia, April 1, 1852; was educated at the Philadelphia Academy of Fine Arts, and in 1871 entered the publishing house of Harper & Brothers, for which he went to England in 1878. He became widely noted for his book illustrations, and in 1890 exhibited his first painting, *A May Day Morning*. He was elected a member of the Royal Academy in 1898, of the Royal Water Color Society in London, and of the National Academy of Design in 1902. He was an American juror on painting at the Paris Exposition of 1900. The last of his notable works in the United States was the design of a series of paintings illustrating the *Holy Grail* for the walls of the new Public Library in Boston. In March, 1901, he was commissioned by King Edward VII. to paint the scene of his coronation in Westminster Abbey.

Abbot, Benjamin, educator; born, 1762. He was graduated at Harvard in 1788. Phillips Academy, Exeter, N. H., was conducted by him until 1838. Among his pupils were George Bancroft, Lewis Cass, Edward Everett, John G. Palfry, Jared Sparks, and Daniel Webster. He died in Exeter, N. H., Oct. 25, 1849.

Abbot, Ezra, theologian; born in Jackson, Me., April 28, 1819. He was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1840, became associate librarian at Harvard College in 1856, and from 1872 till his death was Professor of New Testament Literature and Interpretation at the Cambridge Divinity School. He was a member of the American Committee of New Testament Revisers, was one of the editors of the American edition of Smith's *Bible Dictionary*, and published numerous works in Biblical criticism. He was especially distinguished in the line of Greek scholarship. He died in Cambridge, Mass., March 21, 1884.

Abbot, Henry Larcom, military engineer; born in Beverly, Mass., Aug. 13, 1831. He was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1854, entered the Corps of Engineers, in which he reached the rank of colonel, and was retired in 1895. In the Civil War he commanded the siege artillery of the armies operating against Richmond, designed the systems of submarine mine defences and of mortar batteries for the government, and was brevetted major-general of volunteers and brigadier-general U. S. A. After his retirement he designed the new harbor at Manitowoc, Wis., and was a member of the Technical Committee of the New Panama Canal Co. His publications include *Siege Artillery in the Campaign Against Richmond; Experiments to Develop a System of Submarine Mines;* and *Physics and Hydraulics of the Mississippi*, the last in co-operation with General Humphreys. He received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard, and became a member of many scientific societies.

Abbot, Joel, naval officer; born in Westford, Mass., Jan. 18, 1793; entered the navy as midshipman at the beginning of the War of 1812; served first on the frigate *President*, and next on Lake Champlain with Commodore Macdonough, who when he asked Abbot if he were ready to die for his country received the reply: "Certainly, sir; that is what I came into the service for." He was then ordered to enter the British lines as a spy and destroy a number of spars which had been stored at Sorel. For his success in this dangerous exploit and for his bravery in the engagement at Cumberland Head on Sept. 11, 1814, he received a sword of honor from Congress and was commissioned a lieutenant. He was given charge of the pirate ship *Mariana* in 1818; promoted commander in 1838; and in the following year was given command of the Boston navy-yard. During Commodore Perry's expedition to Japan in 1852 Abbot commanded the *Macedonian*, and later was appointed flag-officer of the squadron. He died in Hong-Kong, China, Dec. 14, 1855.

Abbott, Benjamin Vaughan, legal writer; born in Boston, Mass., June 4, 1830. He was graduated at the New York University in 1850; was admitted to the bar two years afterwards; and, after engaging in general practice with his brother Austin for several years, applied himself to a compilation of works on legal subjects. Alone, or in conjunction with his brother, he compiled nearly 100 volumes of digests, reports, legal treatises, and other allied works, including *Dictionary of Terms in American and English Jurisprudence, National Digest*, and a revison of the *United States Statutes*. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Feb. 17, 1890.

Abbott, Charles Conrad, naturalist; born in Trenton, N. J., June 4, 1843. He was graduated at the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1865; spent several years in making a valuable collection of archæological specimens, which he presented to the Peabody Museum at Cambridge, Mass.; and was an assistant in that institution in 1876–89. Among his publications are *The Stone Age in New Jersey; A Naturalist's Rambles About Home;* several volumes on bird life, and a number of novels.

Abbott, Edward, fourth son of Jacob Abbott, was born July 15, 1841; was graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1860. During 1862 and 1863 he was connected with the Sanitary Commission of the Army of the Potomac. He was a Congregational minister from 1863 to 1878, when he entered the Protestant Episcopal Church. Among his pub-

lished writings are *Paragraph Histories of the Revolution; Revolutionary Times; United States*, etc.

Abbott, HORACE, manufacturer; born in Sudbury, Mass., July 29, 1806. He built the first rolling-mill in the United States, and supplied the armor plates for the *Monitor, Roanoke, Agamenticus, Monadnock*, etc. He died Aug. 8, 1887.

Abbott, JACOB, writer for youth; born in Hallowell, Me., Nov. 14, 1803. He was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1820, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1825. From 1825 to 1829 he was Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Amherst College. He chose the pursuit of literature in the attractive and useful field of affording instruction to the young. One of the earliest of his almost 200 volumes printed was *The Young Christian*, issued the year of his graduation at Andover. His books are remarkable for their wealth of information, their absolute purity of tone and expression, and for their wonderful attractiveness for the young of both sexes. Few men have done so much for the intellectual and moral training of the young for lives of usefulness as Jacob Abbott. His interest in young people never abated through a long and laborious life. His later years were spent upon the old homestead at Farmington, Me., significantly called "Few Acres," for its area of land was small and it was cultivated and adorned by the hands of its owner. Here he died, Oct. 31, 1879.

Abbott, JOHN STEVENS CABOT, historian; born in Brunswick, Me., Sept. 18, 1805; brother of Jacob; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825, and at Andover Seminary; was ordained as a Congregational minister in 1830, and held several pastorates in Massachusetts till 1844, after which he applied himself wholly to literature. Among his notable works are *The French Revolution of 1789; The History of Napoleon Bonaparte; Napoleon at St. Helena; The History of Napoleon III.; The History of the Civil War in America; A Romance of Spanish History;* and *The History of Frederick II., called Frederick the Great.* He died in Fair Haven, Conn., June 17, 1877.

Abbott, LYMAN, clergyman and editor; born in Roxbury, Mass., Dec. 18, 1835; third son of Jacob; was graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1853; was admitted to the bar there, and for a time practised in partnership with his brothers Benjamin Vaughan and Austin. Subsequently he studied theology with his uncle, John Stevens Cabot, and was ordained as a Congregational minister in 1860. He was secretary of the Freedmen's Commission in 1865–68; became editor of the "Literary Record" in *Harper's Magazine*, and conductor of the *Illustrated Christian Weekly;* and for a time was associated with HENRY WARD BEECHER (*q. v.*) in the editorship of *The Christian Union.* In 1888 he succeeded Mr. Beecher as pastor of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn. In 1898 he resigned and took full editorial charge of *The Outlook*, formerly *The Christian Union.* Among his publications is *A Dictionary of Religious Knowledge.* See INDIAN PROBLEM, THE.

An Anglo-American Understanding.— Dr. Abbott in 1898 suggested the following as the basis of an Anglo-American understanding:

The American people wisely attach great importance to Washington's "Farewell Address," and give deserved weight to his counsels. Not one of those counsels has been more influential and more safe-guarding than his admonition to his countrymen to avoid entangling alliances with European nations. Yet Americans must not forget that changes wrought by human progress make inapplicable in one century advice which was wise in the preceding century; that if there be peril to a nation in recklessly advancing along strange paths to an unknown future, there is also danger to a nation in fastening itself too firmly to its past traditions, and refusing to itself permission to recognize changes of conditions which necessitate changes of policy. It is because Spain adheres to the traditions of the sixteenth century, and England has from time to time departed from those traditions, using them as a guide towards the future, not as a prohibition to progress, that Spain has sunk from a first-class to a fourth-class power, while England still remains a leader among the nations of the world.

When Washington issued his "Farewell Address," the United States was a feeble

nation, composed of thirteen colonies, just emancipated from foreign domination. It took as many weeks to go from the northern to the southern border of this nation as it now takes days. The States had not yet been welded into a united nation, and were separated from one another not only by time and distance, but by jealousy and rivalry. The union of the States had not passed beyond the experimental stage. The Constitution of the United States was still on trial. All west of the Alleghanies was an untrodden, and for the most part unknown, wilderness. The population, even along the seaboard, was scanty; the cities were few and small; there was no commerce and little manufactures. In 1809 Jefferson presented to the country his ideal on the subject of manufactures and commerce: "Manufactures sufficient for our consumption, of what we raise the raw material (and no more); commerce sufficient to carry the surplus produce of agriculture beyond our own consumption, to a market for exchanging it for articles we cannot raise (and no more)." A vast and little-known and little-travelled ocean separated us from Europe. Under these circumstances to engage in European strifes, to aid France against Great Britain, to concern ourselves with the balance of power, to undertake, directly or indirectly, to promote the battles of democracy in the old world, to assume to judge that our as yet unproved institutions were the best for countries other than our own, and to rush into the hazard of a foreign war by the unrestrained expression of our sympathies with democratic uprisings would have been foolish indeed. These were the entangling alliances against which Washington admonished his countrymen, and we may say that his admonition against such entangling alliances it were well for us to heed, if necessity should arise, even now.

But since Washington's "Farewell Address" the world has moved, and America has moved most rapidly of all the world. It takes us little, if any, longer to cross from our eastern seaboard to Europe's western seaboard than from our eastern to our western boundary. The cable enables us to converse with Liverpool as readily as with Chicago or San Francisco. The prices of wheat in Liverpool determine the prices in our produce exchanges. Commerce, though unfortunately under foreign flags, is carrying the produce of our country into all the markets of the world. Our manufacturers compete with those of the oldest civilizations. The question whether we can establish a currency of our own, disregardful of the financial standards of the civilized world, has been raised and answered emphatically in the negative. Our territory has extended until it nearly equals in dimensions that of the old Roman Empire in its palmiest days. Our population has not only increased in numbers, but become heterogeneous in character. We are no longer an Anglo-Saxon colony, emerging into statehood. We are Scandinavian, German, Hungarian, Pole, Austrian, Italian, French, and Spanish; all the nations of the earth are represented, not only in our population, but in our suffrages. Whatever interests Norway and Sweden, Holland and Belgium, Germany, Italy, France, or England, interests our people, because from these countries respectively multitudes of our people have come. Meanwhile, our growth, and still more the test to which we have been subjected by foreign war and by civil war, have done much to demonstrate the stability of institutions which, a hundred years ago, were purely experimental and largely theoretical. Other lands have caught inspiration from our life; the whole progress of Europe has been progress towards democracy—whether in England, Spain, Italy, Austria-Hungary, Germany, France, or Scandinavia. The difference in the history of these nationalities, during the nineteenth century, has been a difference not in the direction in which their life has tended, but in the rapidity with which it has moved. The yoke of Bourbonism is broken forever; the Holy Alliance will never be reformed. Politically, socially, industrially, and even physically, the United States and Europe have been drawn together by the irresistible course of events.

We are identified with the civilized world, interested in its problems, concerned in its progress, injured in its disasters, helped by its prosperities. The time has therefore passed when the United States can say, "We are sufficient unto ourselves; we will go our way; the rest of

the world may go its way." The question is not, "Shall we avoid entangling alliances?" We are entangled with all the nations of the globe; by commerce, by manufactures, by race and religious affiliations, by popular and political sympathies. The question for us to determine is not whether we shall live and work in fellowship with European nations, but whether we shall choose our fellowship with wise judgment and definite purpose, or whether we shall allow ourselves to drift into such fellowships as political accident or the changing incidents of human history may direct.

I am glad of the opportunity to urge on American citizens the former course. I believe that the time has come when we ought, as a nation, to recognize the fact that we are not merely an American nation, but a world nation; when we ought to take our place, with clear and definite understanding that we are doing so, among the nations of the world; when we ought to form clearly to ourselves our national purpose, and seek such affiliations as will promote that purpose. It is for this reason that, though I am, on principle and after much consideration, a bimetallist, I believe that the nation did wisely in rejecting the free coinage of silver, and is doing wisely in attempting to conform its currency to the currency of the other commercial nations of the globe. It is for this reason that I think Mr. Blaine proved himself statesmanlike in his organization of a Pan-American Congress, although its immediate results appear to have been comparatively insignificant. It is for this reason I think the nation should foster by appropriate measures every attempt to unite the New World with the Old, whether by cable, for the transmission of intelligence, or by commercial lines for the transmission of the products of our industry and our mails. It is for this reason I think we ought to seize the opportunity offered to us to constitute a permanent tribunal to which international questions might be referred, as of course, for settlement, and especially ought to have seized the opportunity for the organization of such a tribunal for the determination of national questions between Great Britain and the United States. It is for this reason I urge the establishment of a good understanding between the United States and England, in the hope that in time it will grow to a more formal alliance—civic, commercial, and industrial, rather than naval or military—and yet an alliance that will make us, for the purposes of our international life, one people, though not politically one nation. There are three reasons which suggest the wisdom of the establishment and maintenance of such good understanding and the hope of such possibly more formal alliance with our kin beyond the sea.

1. Though our commercial interests are not identical with those of Great Britain, our commercial principles are. England and the United States are competitors and rivals in the markets of the world; but commerce is full of demonstration of the fact that men may be competitors and rivals and yet friends and allies. What is true of men is true of nations. All that the people, either of England or the United States, ask, is a free field and no favors. We have proved ourselves quite competent to compete with any nation, if only the chance for competition is offered us. The great amorphous, ill-organized empire of China is dropping to pieces; Germany, France, England, and Japan, are all seeking ports of entry through which to push, by commercial enterprises, the products of their industry upon people hitherto so little civilized as to want but little. In this competition between foreign nations, England and Japan have stood, apparently alone, for a free and untrammelled commerce. If the official statements in Parliament may be trusted, England has won by diplomacy this commercial freedom, which perhaps Germany, and almost certainly Russia, would have been disinclined to grant. It is impossible that there is no need for us to join formally in a commercial alliance with Japan and Great Britain to insist upon this principle of untrammelled commerce; but if we need not do so, it is only because there is force enough in England to secure it without our aid. In the endeavor to secure it, England is entitled not only to our sympathy, but to the expression of our sympathy. She is entitled not only to our good wishes, but to our moral support. The United States is quite as much interested as England in the opening of trade with China,

if not even more interested. Our western sea-coast is as yet undeveloped; our eastern trade is yet in its infancy. When the unnumbered millions of China shall wake up, when they shall begin to feel the vivifying influence of civilization, when they begin to demand railroads and telegraphs, bicycles and buggies, elevators and electric lights, cars for their streets, mills for their water-courses, agricultural implements for their farms, carpets for their floors, pianos and cabinet organs for their boys and girls, —in short, the conveniences and comforts of modern civilization for their awakening population, it will be alike our interest, our right, and our duty to have a free opportunity to share in the work of providing them with this equipment of a higher life. What is so evident respecting China that the dullest of vision may see it, is equally, though as yet less evidently, true of other great unreached populations. The United States is only less interested than Great Britain in the larger life of India; and in the civilization of Africa, which still seems remote, but not so remote as it did before the travels of Livingstone and Stanley, and which, when it comes, will add a new incentive to the fruitful industry of our mills, as well as of English mills, if we are wise in our statesmanship to forecast the future and to provide for it. If England and America join hands in a generous rivalry, they can lead the world commercially. On that road lies our highway to national prosperity.

2. Political advantages as well as commercial advantages call on us to establish and maintain a good understanding with Great Britain, and to be ready to formulate that good understanding in a more definite alliance whenever the occasion shall arise which necessitates it. The Cuban revolution and the consequent embroglio with Spain, threatening as I write to break out any hour into war, illustrate the difficulty of avoiding altogether collisions with foreign powers. This is the most pressing and immediate illustration, but not the only one. We have interests in Turkey which have been strangely disregarded, though not overlooked. American property has been destroyed, the peace of American citizens disturbed and their lives threatened. Turkey is far away, and it has been difficult, perhaps impossible, so to press our claims upon the Porte as to secure satisfaction for the outrages perpetrated with its connivance, if not by its authority. The injuries to our commerce inflicted by Algerine pirates, our long endurance of those injuries, and our final naval warfare against the marine marauders, are matters of familiar American history. With Americans not only travelling everywhere on the globe, but settling and engaging in business wherever there is business to be done, no one can foresee when an international complication may arise, involving strained relations between ourselves and some other nationality. It would be no small advantage under such circumstances to have established such relations with Great Britain that she would be our natural friend, would give to us her moral support, and would, perhaps, in case of exigency, lend support that would be more than moral. I am not considering in this article the practicability of such a relationship. I do not stop to discuss the question whether Great Britain would be likely to enter into it with us, or whether we should be likely to enter into it with Great Britain. Writing for American, not for English, readers, I do not attempt to point out the advantages to Great Britain as well as to ourselves. My object is simply to show that there would be a real, a tangible, a practical advantage, one that can be measured in dollars and cents, in the establishment of such relationship between these two great Anglo-Saxon communities, that they would be recognized by the civilized world as standing together in amity, making a common cause, not against the rest of the world, but in favor of one principle to which they are alike committed, and in which they are alike interested—the principle expressed by the one word, liberty.

It may be assumed that the United States will never desire to encroach upon the territory of any European power; that, if it comes into the peril of war, it will be not through its desire to colonize on uncivilized territory, nor its desire to seize upon some fragment of civilized territory belonging to another nation, but from its passion for liberty; a passion sometimes exhibited in strong national sympathy for a struggling people such as the Cubans, sometimes in the strong determination to

preserve the liberty of our own people, as in our war against the Algerine pirates. If England and America were thus to stand together for liberty it would be difficult to form a combination which could withstand them so long as they were moderate, just, and rational in their demands.

3. Both the commercial and the political advantages of such a good understanding, growing into a formal alliance as is here suggested, are dependent upon the moral advantage to the world which would grow out of it. It is true that in a sense the United States is neither a Christian nor an Anglo-Saxon nation. It is not officially Christian, if thereby is meant a nation which gives political or financial advantage to one religion or another. It is not Anglo-Saxon, if thereby is meant a nation which sets itself to confer political power upon one race over another. But though it is officially neither Christian nor Anglo-Saxon, it is practically both. Its ethical standards are not those of Mohammedanism or Confucianism, but those of Christianity. Its ruling force in the country, educational, political, and, on the whole, commercial, is not Celtic, nor Sclavic, nor Semitic, nor African, nor Mongolian, but Anglo-Saxon. Thus in its religious spirit, though not altogether in its religious institutions, in its practical leadership, though not in the constituent elements of its population, and in its national history and the genesis of its political institutions, the United States is of kin to Great Britain. The two represent the same essential political ideals; they are both democratic; they both represent the same ethical ideals; they are Christian; and they both represent the same race leadership; they are Anglo-Saxon. In so far as their conjoint influence dominates the world, it will carry with it a tendency towards liberty in the political institutions organized, a tendency towards Christianity in the ethical spirit of the society created, and a tendency towards that energy, that intelligence, and that thrift which are the characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon race in the life promoted. It is from the combination of these three elements in society—political liberty, Christian ethics, Anglo-Saxon energy—that what we call civilization proceeds. And it is out of this civilization thus inspired by Anglo-Saxon energy, thus controlled by Christian ethics, and thus given opportunity for growth by political liberty that industrial prosperity, commercial wealth, and human earthly well-being are founded. Thus the moral advantages of such a good understanding between Great Britain and the United States as is here suggested are more important than the commercial and political advantages, because the commercial and political advantages are dependent upon the moral. It is indeed impossible to separate them, except in statements and for the convenience of clear thinking. Great Britain and the United States cannot combine to promote the commercial prosperity of either nation, or the political protection of the citizens of either in communities less free than their own, except as they combine to promote that world civilization which is founded on political liberty, Christian ethics, and Anglo-Saxon energy. Let Great Britain and the United States work together for the world's civilization, and, on the one hand, no reactionary forces can withstand their combined influence; and on the other, no imagination can estimate the pecuniary and the political advantages, first to these two nations, and next to the whole world, which would come from such a combination. Whoever in either country sows discord between the two is, whether he knows it or not, the political and commercial enemy of both countries, and the enemy of the world's civilization.

Thus far I have suggested only "a good understanding," because this is immediately practicable, yet I have in my imagination an ideal towards which such a good understanding might tend, but which would far transcend anything suggested by that somewhat vague phrase. Let us suppose, then, that Great Britain and the United States were to enter into an alliance involving these three elements: first, absolute reciprocity of trade; second, a tribunal to which should be referred for settlement, as a matter of course, all questions arising between the two nations, as now all questions arising between the various States of this Union are referred to the Supreme Court of the United States; third, a mutual pledge that an assault on one

should be regarded as an assault on both, so that as towards other nations these two would be united as the various States of this Union stand united towards all other States. Such an alliance would include not only our own country and the British Isles, but all the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain—Canada, Australasia, and in time such provinces in Asia and Africa as are under British domination and administration. It would unite in the furtherance of a Christian civilization all the Anglo-Saxon peoples, and all the peoples acting under the guidance and controlling influence of Anglo-Saxon leaders. It would gradually draw into itself other peoples of like minds though of foreign race, such as, in the far East, the people of Japan. It would create a new confederation based on principles and ideas, not on tradition, and bounded by the possibilities of human development, not by geographical lines. It would give a new significance to the motto "E Pluribus Unum," and would create a new United States of the World, of which the United States of America would be a component part. Who can measure the advantage to liberty, to democracy, to popular rights and popular intelligence, to human progress, to a free and practical Christianity, which such an alliance would bring with it? Invincible against enemies, illimitable in influence, at once inspiring and restraining each other, these two nations, embodying the energy, the enterprise, and the conscience of the Anglo-Saxon race, would by the mere fact of their co-operation produce a result in human history which would suppress all that present imagination can conceive or present hope anticipate. See ANGLO-AMERICAN LEAGUE.

Abenakes, or **Abnakis** ("Men of the Eastern Land"), a group of ALGONQUIAN (*q. v.*) tribes of Indians, originally occupying the territory now included within the State of Maine. They included the Penobscot, Norridgewock, and Arosguntacook families, and in the disturbances of the day adhered to the French, whose missionaries converted most of them to Christianity.

Abercrombie, JAMES, military officer; born at Glassaugh, Scotland, in 1706. In 1746 he became a colonel in the British army; was made major-general in 1756, lieutenant-general in 1759, and general in 1772. He came to America in 1756, where he held the chief military command until the arrival of Lord Loudoun. After the departure of that officer, Abercrombie resumed the command. In July, 1758, he attacked TICONDEROGA (*q. v.*) with a large force, but was repulsed with a loss of about 2,000 men. He was succeeded by General Amherst in September following; returned to England in 1759, and became a member of Parliament, wherein he advocated the obnoxious measures that led to the War of the Revolution in 1775. He died April 28, 1781, while Governor of Stirling Castle.

Abercrombie, JAMES, military officer; son of Gen. James Abercrombie. He had served on the staff of General Amherst, in America, and was commissioned a lieutenant in the British army in March, 1770. While leading the British Grenadiers in the battle of Bunker (Breed) Hill, June 17, 1775, he was mortally wounded, dying in Boston on the 24th. See BUNKER HILL.

Abercrombie, JOHN JOSEPH, military officer; born in Tennessee in 1802; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1822. Entering the 1st Infantry, he was its adjutant from 1825 to 1833. Serving in Florida and Mexico, he was promoted to brevet lieutenant-colonel for gallantry in the battle of Monterey, where he was severely wounded. He was commissioned lieutenant-colonel in May, 1852, and colonel in February, 1861, and was brevetted brigadier-general, U. S. A., March 13, 1865. In June following he retired. He was a brigadier-general of volunteers in the Civil War, and commanded a brigade in Patterson's division on the Upper Potomac in 1861. He was transferred to Bank's division in July. Early in 1862 he joined the Army of the Potomac, and was slightly wounded in the battle of FAIR OAKS (*q. v.*). He died in Roslyn, N. Y., Jan. 3, 1877.

Abert, JOHN JAMES, military engineer; born in Shepherdstown, Va., Sept. 27, 1778; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1811; soon afterwards resigned; studied law, and was admitted to the bar; served as a private soldier in the defence of the national capi-

tal in the War of 1812, and in 1814 was re-appointed to the army as a topographical engineer, becoming chief of the corps in 1838. He was associated with the construction of many of the early national works of engineering, and was one of the organizers of the National Institute of Science, which was merged into the SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION (*q. v.*). He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 27, 1863.

Abingdon, a town in Washington county, Va., 315 miles southwest of Richmond. It has valuable deposits of salt, iron, and gypsum, and is noted as being the place from which the greater part of the salt used in the Southern States and the Confederate army during the Civil War was obtained. Burbridge's division of Stoneman's cavalry defeated the Confederates under Echols, and captured the town, Dec. 15, 1864.

Abolition. During the early years of our national history, abolition was a desire rather than a purpose, and most humane and thinking men, North and South, were abolitionists. Previous to the meeting of the first Continental Congress, in 1774, many of the colonies had made protests against the further importation of slaves, and at least two of them, Virginia and Massachusetts, had passed resolutions abolishing the traffic. The Quakers, or Society of Friends, had, since 1760, made slave-holding and slave-trading a matter of church discipline. The War for Independence, and the adoption of the Constitution, in 1787, which included the compromise resolution that provided for the continuation of the slave-trade, by permission, until 1808, caused very little change in the sentiment of the people, and all hoped that in some way, not yet imagined, the gradual and peaceful abolition of slavery would be accomplished. In 1777, Vermont, not yet admitted to the Union, formed a State constitution abolishing slavery. Like constitutions were adopted by Massachusetts, including Maine, in 1780, and by New Hampshire in 1783. Gradual abolition was secured by statute in Pennsylvania in 1780, in Rhode Island and Connecticut in 1784, in New York in 1799, and in New Jersey in 1804. Abolition of slavery in the Northwest Territory, north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi, including the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota, was secured by the Ordinance of 1787. In 1807, Congress passed an act for the abolition of the slave-trade on Jan. 1, 1808. Slavery in part of the Louisiana Purchase, including the present States of Iowa, Oregon, Kansas, Nebraska, part of Colorado, and part of Minnesota, was abolished by the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*), whose validity was rejected by the Supreme Court (see DRED SCOTT DECISION); but the provision for abolition was embodied in the constitutions of these States as they were severally admitted. In course of time gradual abolition took effect in the States which had adopted it by statute, and in 1850 slavery as an institution had practically disappeared from them. Slavery was finally abolished from all the territory of the United States by the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln and the adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, in 1863–65. See CONSTITUTION, NATIONAL; EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATIONS.

Abolitionists. The first society established for promoting public sentiment in favor of the abolition of slavery was formed in Philadelphia on April 14, 1775, with Benjamin Franklin as president and Benjamin Rush as secretary. John Jay was the first president of a society for the same purpose formed in New York, Jan. 25, 1785, and called the "New York Manumission Society." The Society of Friends, or Quakers, always opposed slavery, and were a perpetual and active abolition society, presenting to the national Congress the first petition on the subject. Other abolition societies followed—in Rhode Island in 1786, in Maryland in 1789, in Connecticut in 1790, in Virginia in 1791, and in New Jersey in 1792. These societies held annual conventions, and their operations were viewed by the more humane slave-holders with some favor, since they aimed at nothing practical or troublesome, except petitions to Congress, and served as a moral palliative to the continuance of the practice. The abolition of the African slave-trade by Great Britain in 1807, and by the United States in 1808, came as a great relief to the abolition societies, which had grown discouraged by the evident impossibility of effecting anything in

the South, and were now ready to accept this success as the limit of possibility for the present. In 1801, Thomas Jefferson and Gov. James Monroe, of Virginia, had considerable correspondence on the subject of colonizing free blacks outside of the country. In the autumn of 1816, a society for this purpose was organized in Princeton, N. J. The Virginia Legislature commended the matter to the government, and in December, 1816, the "National Colonization Society" met in Washington. Its object was to encourage emancipation by procuring a place outside of the United States, preferably in Africa, to which free negroes could be aided in emigrating. Its indirect object was to rid the South of the free black population, which had already become a nuisance. Its branches spread into almost every State, and for fourteen years its organization was warmly furthered by every philanthropist in the South as well as in the North. It is noteworthy that, though the society made no real attack upon slavery, as an institution, nearly every person, noted after 1831 as an abolitionist, was before that year a colonizationist. At first free negroes were sent to the British colony of Sierra Leone. In 1820, the society tried and became dissatisfied with Sherbrook Island, and on Dec. 15, 1821, a permanent location was purchased at Cape Mesurado. In 1847, the colony declared itself an independent republic under the name of LIBERIA (*q. v.*), its capital being Monrovia.

It was in 1830 that the abolitionist movement proper began. In 1829–30, William Lloyd Garrison engaged with Benjamin Lundy in publishing *The Genius of Universal Emancipation*, in Baltimore. Garrison's first efforts were directed against the Colonization Society and gradual abolition. He insisted on the use of every means at all times towards abolition without regard to the wishes of slave-owners. The effects were almost immediately apparent. Abolition, with its new elements of effort and intention, was no longer a doctrine to be quietly and benignantly discussed by slave-owners. On Jan. 1, 1831, Garrison began publishing *The Liberator*, in Boston; the New England Anti-Slavery Society was formed Jan. 1, 1832; in 1833 Garrison visited England, and secured from Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay, Daniel O'Connell, and other English abolitionists, a condemnation of the colonizationists. In December, 1833, the American Anti-Slavery Society was organized, in Philadelphia, by an abolition convention of which Beriah Green was president and Lewis Tappan and John G. Whittier secretaries. From this time the question became of national importance. Able and earnest men, such as Weld, May, and Phillips, journeyed through the Northern States as the agents of the National Society, founding State branches and everywhere lecturing on abolition, and were often met by mob violence. In Connecticut, in 1833, Miss Prudence Crandall, of Canterbury, opened her school for negro girls. The Legislature, by act of May 24, 1833, forbade the establishment of such schools, and imprisoned Miss Crandall. Being set at liberty, she was ostracized by her neighbors and her school broken up. For a year George Thomson, who had done much to secure British emancipation in the West Indies, lectured throughout the North. He was mobbed in Boston, and escaped from the country in disguise, in November, 1835. On Nov. 7, 1837, ELIJAH P. LOVEJOY (*q. v.*), a Presbyterian minister, who had established an abolition newspaper in Alton, Ill., was mobbed and shot to death. These occurrences did not cease entirely until the beginning of the Civil War, in 1861. In the South rewards were offered for the capture of prominent abolitionists, and a suspension of commercial intercourse was threatened. The Southern States objected to the use of the mails for the circulation of anti-slavery literature. A bill forbidding such use was voted on in Congress, but lost, and in its stead the care of abolition documents was left, with final success, to the postmasters and the States. The Garrisonian abolitionists were always radical. They criticised the Church, condemned the Constitution, refused to vote, and woman's rights, free love, community of property, and all sorts of novel social ideas were espoused by them. In 1838 the political abolitionists, including Birney, the Tappans, Gerrit Smith, Whittier, Judge Jay, Edward Beecher, Thomas Morris, and others seceded, and in 1840 organized the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery

Society, and under this name prosecuted their work with more success than the original society. In 1839–40 the LIBERTY PARTY (*q. v.*) was formed, and in the Presidential election of 1844 Birney and Morris received 62,300 votes, most of which would have gone to Clay, and thus made possible the election of Polk, the annexation of Texas, and the addition of an immense amount of slave territory to the United States. In the next two Presidential elections the abolitionists voted with the FREE-SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*), and after 1856 with the Republicans, though rather as an auxiliary than as an integral part of the party. During the period 1850–60 the most active exertions of the abolitionists were centred in assisting fugitive slaves to reach places of safety in Canada (see FUGITIVE SLAVE LAW and UNDERGROUND RAILWAY). The result of the Civil War (1861–65) was the total abolition of slavery in all the States. Soon after the adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment, the publication of *The Liberator* ceased and the Anti-Slavery Society dissolved, as natural results.

Aboville, FRANÇOIS MARIE, COUNT D', military officer; born in Brest, France, in January, 1730; came to America with the rank of colonel during the Revolutionary War, and at the siege of Yorktown commanded Rochambeau's artillery. In 1788 he was commissioned a brigadier-general; in 1792 was commander of the French Army of the North; and in 1807 became governor of Brest with the rank of lieutenant-general. He supported the cause of the Bourbons and after the Restoration was made a peer. He died Nov. 1, 1817.

A. B. Plot. On April 19, 1824, Ninian Edwards, a former United States Senator from Illinois, presented an address to the Congress, preferring charges against William H. Crawford, then Secretary of the Treasury and a candidate for the Presidency. The address was accompanied by letters, reflecting on the integrity of Secretary Crawford, signed A. B. The House appointed a committee of seven to investigate the charges, and on May 25 the committee submitted a report exonerating Secretary Crawford. While on his way to Mexico, to which he had been sent on a public mission, Mr. Edwards acknowledged the authorship of the letters and also made new accusations against Secretary Crawford. After the committee had exonerated the Secretary, Mr. Edwards was recalled to substantiate his charges, but failed to do so. This episode became known as the A. B. Plot.

Abraham, HEIGHTS OR PLAINS OF, near Quebec, named from Abraham Martin, who owned a piece of land there in the early times of the colony. On this plateau was fought a battle between French and English, Sept. 13, 1759, gaining Canada for the English. Both commanders, Montcalm and Wolfe, were killed, the latter at the moment of victory. See CANADA; MONTCALM DE ST. VÉRAN; WOLFE, JAMES.

Academy of Arts and Sciences, AMERICAN, an organization founded in Boston in 1778 for the encouragement of arts and sciences; has published *Memoirs* since 1785, and *Proceedings* since 1846.

Academy of Design, NATIONAL, an art institution founded in New York City in 1826; originally occupying a building on the corner of Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street, which was sold in 1895, and a new structure was begun on Amsterdam Avenue and One Hundred and Ninth Street. The academy conducts schools in various branches of the fine arts, and holds semi-annual exhibitions at which a number of valuable prizes are awarded. The members consist of academicians and associates, each of whom must be an artist of recognized merit. The associates, who are entitled to use the letters A.N.A. after their names, are chosen from the general body of the artists, and the academicians, who may use N.A., are elected from the associates. Approved laymen may become fellows on payment of a fee. The schools are open to both sexes, are free, and open from the first Monday in October in each year till the 1st of June following.

Academy of Natural Sciences, an institution in Philadelphia, Pa.; founded in 1812; has published *Journals* since 1817, and *Proceedings* since 1841; and is noted for its very large collection of specimens in natural history.

Academy of Sciences, NATIONAL, an institution incorporated by act of Congress March 3, 1863; comprising active and honorary members and foreign associates. Under the act of incorporation it is the duty of the academy to investigate,

examine, experiment, and report upon any subject of science or art submitted to it by any department of the national government, the expense of such investigations being paid from appropriations for the purpose.

Academy, UNITED STATES MILITARY. See MILITARY ACADEMY.

Academy, UNITED STATES NAVAL. See NAVAL ACADEMY.

Acadia, or **Acadié,** the ancient name of NOVA SCOTIA (*q. v.*) and adjacent regions. It is supposed to have been visited by Sebastian Cabot in 1498, but the first attempt to plant a settlement there was by De Monts, in 1604, who obtained a charter from the King of France for making settlements and carrying on trade. In that charter it is called Cadié, and by the early settlers it was known as L'Acadié. A settlement was made at a place named Port Royal (now Annapolis), by Poutrincourt, a bosom friend of De Monts, but it was broken up in 1613, by Argall, from Virginia. These French emigrants built cottages sixteen years before the Pilgrims landed on the shores of New England. When English people came, antagonisms arising from difference of religion and nationality appeared, and, after repeated struggles between the English and French for the possession of Acadia, it was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. But for many years not a dozen English families were seen there. The descendants of the early French settlers occupied the land, and were a peaceable, pastoral people, who never engaged in the forays of the French and Indians along the New England frontiers. They were attached to their fatherland and their religion, and they refused to fight against the former or abjure the latter. This attitude was accorded to them by solemn agreements, and they were known as "French Neutrals." They were happy in their neutrality, and in their isolation they formed one great and loving family. Pure in morals, pious without bigotry, honest, industrious, and frugal, they presented an outline picture of Utopia.

When New-Englanders began to colonize Nova Scotia vigorously, their priests, fired with zeal for the Church, disturbed their repose by dread of "heretics" and warnings not to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. "Better," said the Jesuits, "surrender your meadows to the sea and your treasures to the flames than, at the peril of your souls, to take the oath of allegiance to the British government." So the priests, with which Canada furnished them, and on whom they implicitly relied, disturbed the peace and led them on to their ruinous troubles. At one time they would resolve to flee to Canada; at another the love of their homes would make them resolve to remain. The haughtiness of British officers aided the priests in fomenting disaffection. The English despised the Acadians because they were helpless in their lack of knowledge of English laws, and they were continually robbed of their rights and property by English officials. Was any of their property demanded for the public service, they were "not to be bargained with for payment"; so the orders ran. Under various pretences they were continually shorn, yet they meekly submitted to the tyranny of their masters. The English officers were authorized to punish Acadians for what they might deem misbehavior, at their discretion, and, if British troops should be annoyed by them, they might inflict vengeance on the nearest Acadians "whether guilty or not." Finally, persuaded by the French government and their priests, the Acadians abandoned nearly all the peninsula, and settled themselves in a fertile region on the isthmus between the northern extremity of the Bay of Fundy and Northumberland Strait. The object of the movement was to make them form a barrier against the encroachments of the English. There the French built two forts, the principal of which was Beau Séjour, on the Bay of Fundy, where the isthmus is only 15 miles wide. In June, 1755, a land and naval armament came from Boston, landed at the head of the Bay of Fundy, captured the forts, and took military possession of the country of the French Neutrals. The French soldiers were sent to Louisburg, and the Acadians who had been forced into the French service were granted an amnesty. They readily took an oath of allegiance, expected forbearance, and went on quietly cultivating their land. But the exasperation of the people of New England, because of the horrible forays of the French and Indians on their frontiers, had to be appeased, and

vengeance was inflicted upon these innocent people. It was resolved to banish the French Neutrals from their country. Governor Shirley had proposed it years before, in order to supply their place with Protestants; and the British government had promoted emigration thither, that a strong admixture of Protestants might neutralize the efforts of the priests to make the Acadians disloyal. Now Shirley's scheme was adopted, and General Winslow, who commanded the invaders, was made the executor of it.

It was believed by the English that if the Acadians were permitted to go to Canada or Cape Breton, they would thus strengthen the enemies of the English; to distribute them would destroy their strength and prevent attempts to return. To accomplish this, a disgraceful artifice was employed. The English authorities issued a proclamation, ordering "both old and young men, as well as all the lads of ten years of age," to assemble on Sept. 5, 1755, at designated places. They obeyed. The proceedings at one place afford a fair picture of those at all others. At Grand-Pré, 418 unarmed men and youths were assembled, and marched into the church. There General Winslow told them they had been called together to hear the decision of the King of England in regard to the French inhabitants of the province. "Your lands and tenements," he said, "cattle of all kinds, and live-stock of all sorts, are forfeited to the crown, and you, yourselves, are to be removed from this his province. I am, through his Majesty's goodness, directed to allow you liberty to carry off your money and household goods, as many as you can, without discommoding the vessels you go in. *You are now the King's prisoners.*"

Every household in Grand-Pré was filled with consternation. At Grand-Pré alone 1,923 men, women, and children were driven on board British vessels at the point of the bayonet. Fully 2,000 were thus expelled from their homes in Acadia. The men and boys assembled at the church went first; the sisters, wives, and daughters had to wait for other transports. They marched from the church to the water's edge, some in sullen despair, others with hands clasped and eyes uplifted, praying and weeping, and others singing hymns, while on each side of the sad procession was a row of women and children on their knees, imploring blessings upon the heads of dear ones. They were all finally distributed in the various English colonies. Many families, separated at the outset by the cruel arrangements for their transportation, were never reunited; and for a long time the colonial newspapers contained advertisements seeking information about fragments of dismembered families. They were dropped along the shores of the English colonies, from the Penobscot to the Savannah, without resources, and ignorant of the language of the people among whom they were thrust, excepting in South Carolina, where the Huguenot families treated them with great kindness. They abhorred the almshouse and dreaded service in English families. They yearned intensely for their native land and kindred in language and religion. Many wandered through the forests to Canada and Louisiana—men, women, and children—sheltered in bush-camps and kindly cared for by the Indians, that they might rest under French dominion. Some families went to sea in open boats, to find their way back to Acadia; and, coasting along the shores of New England, were there met by orders from Nova Scotia to stop all returning fugitives. Many touching stories of parents seeking their children, husbands their wives, and lovers their affianced have been related. It is a sad, sad story of man's inhumanity to man.

Even in their bitter exile the Acadians were subjected to the hatred and cruelty of English officials. When Lord Loudoun (*q. v.*) was commander-in-chief in America, some of the Acadians settled in Pennsylvania ventured to address a respectful petition to him. Offended because the document was in the French language, the Earl seized five of the leading men who signed the petition, and who had been persons of wealth and distinction in Acadia, and sent them to England, with a request that, to prevent their being troublesome in the future, they should be consigned to hard service as common sailors in the royal navy. The King seems to have approved the measure; and the Lords of Trade, when the desolation of Acadia was made complete, congratulated the profligate

monarch that the zeal of the governor of Nova Scotia, who had driven them away, had been "crowned with entire success." Exquisitely cruel was the treatment these poor people received at the hands of their conquerors. The method employed to legally dispossess the Acadians of their coveted lands was most disgraceful. They had taken the oath of allegiance, but refused to take an oath that they would bear arms against the French if required, and practically abjure their religion. Exemption from this had been solemnly promised them. The governor of Nova Scotia referred the matter to the chief-justice of the province as a technical question in law, whether one who refuses to take all required oaths could hold lands in the British dominions. The chief-justice decided against the Acadians, and it was determined to take their lands away from them and distribute them among the English colonists. The French government asked leave for the Acadians to take with them their effects and to settle where they chose. "No," replied their masters, "they are too useful subjects to be lost; we must enrich our colonies with them." Unfortunately for the poor people, some of their best men presented a petition to the governor at Halifax. He would not receive it, and demanded that they should immediately take the oaths required before the council. "We will do as our people may determine," they meekly replied, and asked permission to return home and consult them. The next day, perceiving the perilous position of their people, they offered to take the oaths. "By a law of the realm," said the governor, "Roman Catholics who have once refused to take the oaths cannot be permitted to do so afterwards, and are considered Popish recusants." They were cast into prison, and the chief-justice decided that all the French inhabitants—hundreds of innocent families who were ignorant of all these proceedings—were "rebels and Popish recusants," and stood in the way of "English interests" in the country, and that they had forfeited all their possessions to the crown. So their doom was sealed. See Longfellow's *Evangeline*.

Accault, Michael, explorer; was with La Salle when the latter discovered the Mississippi River. Later, with Louis Hennepin (*q. v.*), in the summer of 1679, he was sent by La Salle to explore the sources of the Mississippi. They went up the river as far the Falls of St. Anthony, where they were captured by Indians, but were rescued by Daniel Duluth, a French officer. In a few months they succeeded in reaching the trading-station at Green Bay.

Acerraderos, a town in the province of Santiago, Cuba, on the Caribbean Sea, a few miles west of the entrance to the harbor of Santiago. It was here that General Garcia, the commander of the Cuban army, established his camp just before the opening of the Santiago campaign in 1898. The United States fleet arrived off Santiago on June 21, and as soon as possible General Shafter and Admiral Sampson went ashore and arranged with General Garcia for the co-operation of the Cubans under his command. The landing of the United States troops and the operations of the American army from that time till the surrender of Santiago were greatly facilitated by General Garcia and his army. See Daiquiri.

Acland, John Dyke, military officer; was with Burgoyne in his invasion of northern New York in 1777, and at the

Maj. John Dyke Acland.

CHRISTINA HARRIET ACLAND.

same time he was a member of Parliament. In the battle of Saratoga (Oct. 7, 1777) he was severely wounded—shot through the legs—and made a prisoner. Taken to the American headquarters on Bemis's Heights, his devoted wife, Lady Harriet, was permitted to pass through the lines and attend him. She was kindly received and treated by the American officers, and their bearing towards their wounded prisoners excited the major's gratitude and warm esteem. After his return to England he was provoked to give the lie direct to Lieutenant Lloyd, at a dinner-party, because the latter cast aspersions upon the Americans. A duel ensued on Bampton Downs. The major was unhurt, but a severe cold, which he contracted at the time of the duel, culminated in a fever which caused his death at his seat at Pixton, Somersetshire, Oct. 31, 1778. His wife, Christina Harriet Caroline Fox, was a daughter of the first Earl of Ilchester; was born in 1750; married John Dyke Acland in 1770; and died near Taunton, England, July 21, 1815.

Acquia Creek. See AQUIA CREEK.

ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY

Acquisition of Territory. The original territory of the United States as acknowledged by the treaty with Great Britain, in 1783, consisted of the following thirteen States: New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The boundaries of many of these States, as constituted by their charters, extended to the Pacific Ocean; but in practice they ceased at the Mississippi. Beyond that river the territory belonged, by discovery and settlement, to the King of Spain. All the territory west of the present boundaries of the States was ceded by them to the United States in the order named: Virginia, 1784; Massachusetts, 1785; Connecticut, 1786 and 1800; South Carolina, 1787; North Carolina, 1790; Georgia, 1802. This ceded territory comprised part of Minnesota, all of Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio (see NORTHWEST TERRITORY), Tennessee, and a great part of Alabama and Mississippi. Vermont was admitted as a separate State in 1791; Kentucky, then a part of Virginia, in 1792; and Maine, till that time claimed by Massachusetts, in 1820.

Louisiana Purchase.—Spain's restriction of the navigation of the Mississippi, the great natural commercial artery of the American continent, was a great annoyance to the settlers on the western slopes of the Alleghanies. It was not until Oct. 17, 1795, and after many attempts, that Thomas Pinckney succeeded in negotiating a treaty of friendship, boundaries, and navigation. On Oct. 1, 1800, by the treaty of St. Ildefonso, Spain retroceded to France the vast province of Louisiana. Bonaparte's design to revive, in New Orleans, the former colonial glories of the French monarchy more and more menaced the United States; navigation was again closed; and in Congress, James Ross, Senator from Pennsylvania, introduced resolutions authorizing the President to call out 50,000 militia and to take possession of New Orleans. Instead of this, Con-

gress appropriated $2,000,000 for the purchase of the city, and sent James Monroe, as minister extraordinary, to co-operate with Livingston, minister to France, in the proposed purchase. April 11, 1803, Livingston, who had already begun negotiations for the purchase of New Orleans, was suddenly invited by Napoleon to make an offer for the whole of Louisiana. On the following day Monroe arrived in Paris, and the two ministers decided to offer $10,000,000. The price was finally fixed at $15,000,000, one-fourth of it to consist in the assumption by the United States of $3,750,000 worth of claims of American citizens against France. The treaty was in three conventions—to secure the cession, to ascertain the price, to stipulate for the assumption of the claims—all signed the same day, April 30, 1803, by Livingston and Monroe on one part, and Barbé-Marbois on the other. This vast purchase added 1,171,931 square miles to the territory of the United States, including Alabama and Mississippi south of the parallel of 31°; all of Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Indian Territory, Missouri, Nebraska, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Montana; Minnesota, west of the Mississippi; Colorado and Wyoming, east of the Rocky Mountains; and Kansas, with the exception of the southwestern corner. The western boundary was not finally settled until after the purchase of Florida, in 1819.

Florida Purchase.—The boundary between Louisiana and Florida had been long in dispute, Spain claiming all that territory south of the parallel of 31° and east of the Mississippi River, and the United States fixing it at the Perdido River, the present boundary between Florida and Alabama. In 1810, the people of west Florida met at Baton Rouge and declared themselves independent, and Governor Claiborne, of the Territory of Orleans, was sent by the President to take possession; in 1812 the Pearl River was made the eastern boundary of Louisiana, and the remainder of west Florida was annexed to Mississippi Territory; in 1813 the fort and city of Mobile were taken by General Wilkinson. During this period a determination of gaining east Florida had been growing rapidly, and Congress, by acts passed in secret, in January and March, 1811, had authorized the President to take temporary possession. In 1818, during the Seminole War, being annoyed by Spanish assistance given to the Indians, Jackson raided east Florida, captured St. Marks and Pensacola, and hanged Arbuthnot and Ambrister, two British subjects who had given aid and comfort to the Indians. This demonstrated so completely that Florida was at the mercy of the United States that the Spanish minister at Washington signed a treaty, on Feb. 22, 1819, by which Spain ceded Florida, in return for the payment of claims of American citizens against Spain, amounting to $5,000,000. The ratification by Spain was not secured till 1821, Spain attempting to obtain the refusal of the United States to recognize the independence of the revolted Spanish-American colonies. The territory purchased comprised 59,268 square miles.

Oregon.—The treaty with Spain in 1821 settled the western boundary of the Louisiana purchase as follows: "Beginning at the mouth of the Sabine, in the Gulf of Mexico; up the west bank of the Sabine to the thirty-second degree of north latitude; thence north to the Red River; along the south bank of the Red River to the one-hundredth degree of longitude east from Greenwich; thence north to the Arkansas; thence along the south bank of the Arkansas to its source; thence south or north, as the case may be, to the forty-second degree north latitude, and along that parallel to the Pacific Ocean." This put out of dispute the territory comprising the present States of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and the western part of Wyoming, claimed by the United States on the grounds of discovery (1792), exploration (1805), and settlement (1811). The boundary between the States of Washington and Idaho, on one side, and Canada, on the other, was finally determined in 1848.

Texas.—In 1833, Texas, then a part of the Mexican Republic, refused to remain a part of Coahuila, and on April 1 formed a Mexican State constitution of its own. The greater part of its population had emigrated from the southwestern part of the United States, and, on the abolishment of the State constitutions, in

ACQUIRED BY DISCOVERY 1792.
BY EXPLORATION 1805.
BY ASTORIA SETTLEMENT 1811
AND BY FLORIDA TREATY 1819.
CEDED BY MEXICO 1848
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
Purchased from France 1803
CEDED BY TEXAS 1845
TERRITORY
DOMINION
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
NEVADA
ARIZONA
UTAH
COLORADO
NEBRASKA
DAKOTA
KANSAS
TEXAS
MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
BERING SEA
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
ALASKA
Ceded by Russia 1867
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Ceded by Spain 1899
Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150
PHILIPPINE SEA
CHINA SEA
SULU OR MINDORA SEA
BORNEO
Cape Flattery
Vancouver I.
Olympia
Astoria
Portland
Salem
Eugene City
Columbia R.
Lewiston
Snake R.
Boise
Helena
Butte
Great Falls
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
Miles City
Bismarck
Pierre
Lake Manitoba
Sacramento
San Francisco
Oakland
Monterey
Santa Barbara Is.
Pt. Conception
Los Angeles
San Diego
Virginia City
Carson
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
Salt Lake City
Bear R.
Green R.
Frisco
Cheyenne
Denver
Platte R.
Colorado R.
Arkansas R.
Canadian R.
Santa Fe
Prescott
Phœnix
Gila R.
El Paso
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
Colby
Pt. Barrow
Arctic Circle
Yukon R.
Circle
Dawson
Eagle
Forty Mile
Fort Yukon
Nulato
St. Michael
Kaltag
Unalakleet
Nushagak R.
Sitka
Aleutian Is.
Manila
Mindoro
Palawan
Panay
Negros
Sulu Is.
Sulu or Mindora Sea
Borneo
Lower California
Mexico
Santa Fe
Fort Leavenworth

MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
showing
ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY

Scale of Miles
0 50 100 200 300 400

THE SHADED AREA ALONG THE COAST INDICATES THE SETTLED PART AT THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

ROSE ISLAND

OLOSENGA I.

MANUA ISLAND

WAKE ID. *Annexed 1898*

HAWAIIAN ISLANDS *Annexed 1898*

PINE ISLAND *Ceded by Spain 1899*

PORTO RICO
Scale of Miles
Ceded by Spain 1899

ENGRAVED BY ROBMAY & CO N.Y.

1835, and the appointment of a dictator, declared itself independent of Mexico, March 2, 1836. After a brief war, distinguished by two brutal massacres on the part of the Mexicans at Goliad and the ALAMO (*q. v.*), Houston, the Texan commander, with 700 men, met Santa Ana, the Mexican President, with 5,000 men, at San Jacinto, and totally defeated him. Santa Ana, to gain his liberty, signed a treaty recognizing the independence of the Republic of Texas. This treaty was never ratified by Mexico; but the United States, and afterwards England, France, and Belgium, recognizing the new republic, its independence was practically secured. From this time the annexation of Texas to the United States became a great political issue, both by the Southern politicians, who were anxious to add more slave territory to the United States, and by Texas herself, whose finances had fallen into fearful disorder through careless and extravagant expenditures. This was not made possible until the election of Polk to the Presidency, when the campaign cry of the South was, "Texas or Disunion." The first resolutions were introduced into Congress in the House, Jan. 25, 1845; by joint resolution, in the House, Dec. 16; and in the Senate, Dec. 22. Texas was admitted as a State without the formality of a treaty. It added 376,133 square miles to the territory of the United States.

Mexico and California.—This territory, comprising 545,783 square miles, and including the present States of California, Nevada, and Utah, and a large part of Arizona and New Mexico, and part of Colorado, came to the United States as a result of the MEXICAN WAR (*q. v.*), through conquest and purchase. The treaty, known as the treaty of Guadaloupe Hidalgo, was signed Feb. 2, 1848, and was ratified by the Senate March 10, the United States paying $15,000,000 in addition to assuming the payment of claims of American citizens against Mexico amounting to $3,250,000.

Gadsden Purchase.—In 1853 the United States bought from Mexico a strip of land, now forming that part of Arizona and New Mexico lying south of the Gila River and extending from the Rio Grande, near El Paso, on the east, to the Colorado River on the west. GEN. JAMES GADSDEN (*q. v.*) was at that time minister to Mexico and negotiated the transfer, and this territory, 45,535 square miles in extent, has always borne his name.

Alaska.—This valuable fur and mineral producing country was first claimed by Russia by right of discovery. By treaty of March 30, 1867, ratified by the Senate in special session, June 20, 1867, Russia ceded the whole of the territory, 557,390 square miles in extent, to the United States for $7,200,000. See ALASKA.

Hawaii.—In January, 1896, a joint resolution was introduced into the Lower House of the United States Congress providing for the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands, and was referred to the committee on foreign affairs. On June 16, 1897, a treaty was signed in Washington by representatives of both governments and transmitted to the Senate. The committee on foreign relations reported favorably upon it, but the Senate adjourned without action. In Hawaii, the treaty was ratified by both Houses of the Congress by unanimous vote, Sept. 10. Many attempts were made in later sessions of Congress, but it was not till June 6, 1898, when the United States Senate adopted a direct annexation resolution, that anything was accomplished towards the acquisition of the islands. The President signed the resolution on the following day, and ordered the cruiser *Philadelphia* to proceed to Honolulu and raise the American flag. Commissioners were appointed to prepare a plan for the future government of the islands, and formal possession was taken on Aug. 12, 1898. See BLOUNT, JAMES H.; HAWAII.

Wake Island.—This low-lying atoll in the midst of the Pacific Ocean, half-way between the Hawaiian Islands and the Philippines, was taken possession of, in the name of the United States, by a landing-party under the command of Commander Edward D. Taussig, of the U. S. S. *Bennington*, Jan. 17, 1899. Wake Island is said to have been by rights already American territory, since, in 1851, Admiral Wilkes surveyed the place and asserted title. As a cable station, in view of the laying of a Pacific cable, it will be invaluable. See WAKE ISLAND.

Porto Rico.—This large and fertile isl-

and, together with its outlying smaller islands, came into the possession of the United States at the close of the Spanish-American War, by the ratification of the treaty of peace (1899). At the time of the suspension of hostilities General Miles was conducting a campaign in the island. He had met with very little resistance, and had been treated by the natives on every hand more as a liberator than a conqueror. The island has valuable natural resources and possesses a delightful climate. See Porto Rico.

Philippine Islands.—After his great victory in Manila Bay, May 1, 1898, Dewey refrained from attacking the city until he could receive co-operation from the land forces. General Merritt, as first military governor of the Philippines, was despatched immediately with a large military force, which was landed during the months of June and July. The first land engagement took place on Aug. 9, near Malate, and the city was stormed and captured on Aug. 13, one day after the signing of the protocol, a fact of which the American generals were in ignorance. The final treaty of peace (1899) ceded the entire group of islands to the United States upon the consideration of a payment of $20,000,000. See Philippine Islands.

Guam.—The principal island of the Ladrone group, in the Pacific Ocean, was seized by the United States naval authorities on June 21, 1898, and was ceded by Spain to the United States by the treaty of peace following the Spanish-American War. Formal American possession was taken Feb. 1, 1899. On Oct. 4, 1900, by order of the Navy Department, Guam was made a separate naval and government station. The harbor of San Luis d'Apra is said to be one of the finest in the world. See Agana; Guam.

Samoa.—The independence and neutrality of the Samoan Islands were guaranteed in 1890 by tripartite agreement between Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. The political situation remained very peaceable until 1899, when some of the followers of Mataafa, the former king, then in exile, instigated a revolution. This was quickly suppressed by the interference of the above powers, who landed marines and put the insurgents to flight. Soon after quiet had been restored negotiations were entered into which resulted in the partitioning of the islands and the surrendering by Germany and Great Britain of all rights to the island of Tutuila, containing the magnificent harbor of Pago Pago, and all other islands of the Samoan group east of long. 171° W. of Greenwich. The treaty was ratified in the Senate, Jan. 16, 1900, and formal possession of the islands was taken by the President on March 16. See Samoa; Tutuila.

Cibitu and Cagayan.—The Peace Commissioners in Paris (1899) who negotiated the transfer of the Philippine Islands from Spain to the United States drew a geographical boundary-line fixed by meridians of longitude and parallels of latitude. The lines described a parallelogram with the exception that there was an inset in the southwestern corner to exclude some islands off the coast of Borneo. A year after the signing of the treaty of Paris (1899), the fact was discovered that in laying down these boundaries the commissioners had excluded the islands of Cibitu and Cagayan of the Philippine group. After negotiations lasting for several months, in which Spain refused to recede from her position of ownership, the United States, in July, 1900, in order to remove cause of possible irritation as well as to protect herself from their future purchase by other European powers, bought the islands from Spain for $100,000. The islands are small and thinly populated, but are valuable for their pearl and shell fisheries. Ratifications of the treaty of cession were exchanged in Washington on March 23, 1901.

See also Annexed Territory, Status of; Anti-Expansionists; Atkinson, Edward; Bryan, William Jennings; Imperialism.

Acre, one of the principal land measures in the United States. The English imperial or standard acre, by statute (George IV., 1824) contains 4,840 square yards, and this is the accepted standard in the United States.

Acrelius, Israel, clergyman; born in Osteraker, Sweden, Dec. 25, 1714; was ordained in 1743; came to America to preside over the Swedish congregations in New Sweden in 1749. His work was

marked with success, but after seven years' toil he was forced to resign by ill-health, and returned to Sweden. His publications include *The Swedish Colonies in America* (1759, translated into English in 1874), and articles on America. He died in Fellingsbro, April 25, 1800. See NEW SWEDEN, FOUNDING OF.

Acropolis, a citadel, usually on the summit of a rock or hill. The most celebrated was the one at Athens.

Acta Diurna, the Roman gazette containing an authorized account of daily transactions. This was exposed daily in the Forum.

Acuera, a Creek Indian cacique, the territory of whose people in Florida was early invaded by De Soto. The cruelties of Narvaez and De Soto in Florida aroused among the native tribes feelings of the bitterest hatred. Narvaez caused a captive cacique, or chief, to be mutilated after the first engagement with the hostile Indians. His nose was cut off, and he was otherwise disfigured; and the invader caused fierce blood-hounds to tear the chief's mother in pieces in the presence of her children. Narvaez supposed this would strike terror, and make conquest easy; but he was mistaken. De Soto had blood-hounds, iron neck-collars, handcuffs, chains, and instruments of torture, wherewith to subdue the barbarians, who were really less barbarous than he. He loaded his captives with chains, and made beasts of burden of them, regardless of age or sex. After some acts of this kind, he sought to conciliate Acuera, whose territory he had invaded, for he was powerful, and commanded many warriors. De Soto invited the dusky sovereign to a friendly interview, when he received from Acuera this haughty reply: "Others of your accursed race [Narvaez and his men] have, in years past, disturbed our peaceful shores. They have taught me what you are. What is your employment? To wander about like vagabonds from land to land; to rob the poor and weak; to betray the confiding; to murder the defenceless in cold blood. No! with such a people I want neither peace nor friendship. War—never-ending, exterminating war—is all I ask. You boast yourself to be valiant—and so you may be; but my faithful warriors are not less brave, and of this you shall one day have proof, for I have sworn to maintain an unsparing conflict while one white man remains in my borders; not openly in the battle-field, though even thus we fear not to meet you, but by stratagem, ambush, and midnight surprisal." De Soto then demanded that Acuera should yield obedience to the Spanish monarch. "I am a king in my own land," said the cacique, "and will never become the vassal of a mortal like myself. Vile and pusillanimous is he who submits to the yoke of another when he may be free! As for me and my people, we prefer death to the loss of liberty and the subjugation of our country." De Soto could never pacify Acuera, and during the twenty days that he remained in the cacique's dominions his command suffered dreadfully. A Spaniard could not go 100 paces from his camp without being slain and his severed head carried in triumph to Acuera. Fourteen Castilians so perished, and many were severely wounded. "Keep on! robbers and traitors!" said the cacique. "In my province and in Apalacha you will be treated as you deserve. We will quarter and hang every captive on the highest tree." And they did so. See DE SOTO and NARVAEZ.

Adair, JAMES, author; lived among the Chickasaw and Cherokee Indians in 1735–75. He held the opinion and attempted to show that the American Indians were descended from the Jews. He was the author of a *History of the American Indians* (in which he elaborated his opinion), and of vocabularies of Indian dialects.

Adair, JOHN, military officer; born in Chester county, S. C., in 1759. He served in the Continental army during the Revolution, and in the wars against the frontier Indians in 1791–93. He was United States Senator in Congress in 1805–6; and as volunteer aide to General Shelby at the battle of the Thames, in 1813, he showed much bravery and skill. He distinguished himself as commander of the Kentucky troops in the battle of New Orleans, in January, 1815. From 1820 to 1824 he was governor of Kentucky, having served in the legislature of that State; and from 1831 to 1833 was a Representative in Congress. He died in Harrodsburg, Ky., May 19, 1840.

Adair, WILLIAM P., born in 1828. He was one of the chiefs of the Cherokee nation, and commanded a brigade of Indians organized by Gen. Albert Pike on behalf of the Confederacy. This brigade took part in the battle of Pea Ridge, Ark., in 1862. He died in 1880.

Adams and Liberty. See PAINE, R. T.

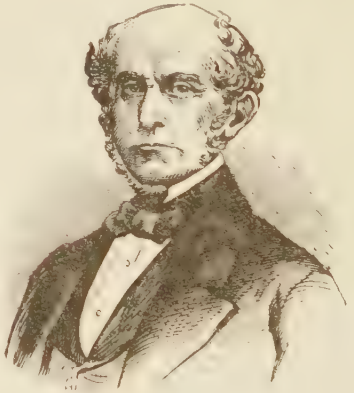
Adams, ABIGAIL (SMITH), wife of President John Adams; born in Weymouth, Mass., Nov. 23, 1744; daughter of the Rev. William Smith; was married Aug. 25, 1764, when Mr. Adams was a rising young lawyer in Boston. In 1784 she joined her husband in France, and in the following year went with him to London, where neither her husband nor herself received the courtesies due their position. In 1789–1810 she resided at the seat of the national government, and passed the remainder of her life in the Quincy part of Braintree, dying Oct. 28, 1818. Her correspondence, preserved in *Familiar Letters of John Adams and His Wife, Abigail Adams, during the Revolution,* throws important light upon the life of the times which it covers.

Adams, BROOKS, author; born in Quincy, Mass., June 24, 1848; son of Charles Francis; was graduated at Harvard College in 1870; spent a year in the law school there; was secretary to his father while the latter was serving as an arbitrator on the *Alabama* Claims, under the Treaty of Washington; and after his return from Geneva he was admitted to the bar and practised till 1881, when he began applying himself chiefly to literature. Besides numerous articles in magazines and other periodicals, he has published *The Emancipation of Massachusetts, The Law of Civilization and Decay,* etc.

Adams, CHARLES, lawyer; born in Arlington Vt., March 12, 1785; educated himself for college, and was graduated at the University of Vermont in 1804. During the Canadian difficulties of 1838 he was the friend and legal adviser of General Wool, and subsequently wrote a history of the events of that uprising under the title of *The Patriot War.* He attained a large practice in his profession, and was a voluminous contributor to periodical literature on the public events of his day. He died in Burlington, Vt., Feb. 13, 1861.

Adams, CHARLES FOLLEN, humorous writer; born in Dorchester, Mass., April 21, 1842; received a common-school education; and was wounded and taken prisoner at Gettysburg while serving in the Union army. Since 1872 he has become widely known by his humorous poems in German dialect, of which *Leedle Yawcob Strauss and other Poems* and *Dialect Ballads* are the most popular.

Adams, CHARLES FRANCIS, statesman; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 18, 1807;



CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

son of John Quincy Adams; was graduated at Harvard College in 1825. He accompanied his father to St. Petersburg and England, where he passed much of his childhood until the return of his family to America in 1817. Mr. Adams studied law in the office of Daniel Webster, and was admitted to the bar in 1828, but never practised it as a vocation. In 1829 he married a daughter of Peter C. Brooks, of Boston. For five years he was a member of the legislature of Massachusetts. Having left the Whig Party, he was a candidate of the FREE-SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*) in 1848 for the Vice-Presidency of the United States, Mr. Van Buren being the candidate for the Presidency. They were defeated. In 1850–56 Mr. Adams published the *Life and Works of John Adams* (his grandfather), in 10 volumes. In 1859 he was elected to Congress from the district which his father long represented. He was then a Republican in politics. In March, 1861, he was appointed minister to Great Britain, where he managed his diplomatic

duties with much skill during one of the most trying times in our history—that of the Civil War. He remained as American minister in London until 1868, when, in February, he resigned. In 1872 Mr. Adams was first a Liberal Republican, and then a Democrat, in politics. His labors in the field of literature were various. From 1845 to 1848 he edited a daily newspaper in Boston, and was long either a regular or an occasional contributor to the *North American Review*. His principal task was the preparation of the *Life and Works of John Adams*, and a *Life of John Adams*, in 2 volumes. He also issued the *Life and Works of John Quincy Adams*, in 12 volumes. He died in Boston, Nov. 21, 1886. When the spirit of secession was rampant in Congress late in December, 1860, he tried to soothe the passions of the Southern politicians by offering in the House Committee of Thirty-three a resolution, "That it is expedient to propose an amendment to the Constitution, to the effect that no future amendments of it in regard to slavery shall be made unless proposed by a slave State and ratified by all the States." It was passed by only three dissenting voices in the committee.

Adams, CHARLES FRANCIS, lawyer, and historian; born in Boston, Mass., May 27, 1835; second son of Charles Francis, 1st; was graduated at Harvard College in 1856, and admitted to the bar two years afterwards. During the Civil War he served in the Union army, attaining the rank of brevet brigadier-general.

He was appointed a member of the Board of Railway Commissioners of Massachusetts in 1869; and was president of the Union Pacific Railway Company in 1884–91. In 1895 he was elected president of the Massachusetts Historical Society. His publications include, *Railroads, their Origin and Problems; Massachusetts, its Historians and its History; Three Episodes of Massachusetts History; Life of Charles Francis Adams; Richard Henry Dana, a Biography*, etc.

The Double Anniversary, '76 and '63.—On July 4, 1869, he delivered the following historical address at Quincy, Mass.:

Six years ago, on this anniversary, we —and not only we who stood upon the scarred and furrowed field of battle, but you and our whole country—were drawing breath after the struggle of Gettysburg. For three long days we had stood the strain of conflict, and now, at last, when the nation's birthday dawned, the shattered rebel columns had sullenly withdrawn from our front, and we drew that long breath of deep relief which none have ever drawn who have not passed in safety through the shock of doubtful battle. Nor was our country gladdened then by news from Gettysburg alone. The army that day twined noble laurel garlands round the proud brow of the mother-land. Vicksburg was, thereafter, to be forever associated with the Declaration of Independence, and the glad anniversary rejoicings, as they rose from every town and village and city of the loyal North, mingled with the last sullen echoes that died away from our cannon over the Cemetery Ridge, and were answered by glad shouts of victory from the far Southwest. To all of us of this generation—and especially to such of us as were ourselves part of those great events—this celebration, therefore, now has and must ever retain a special significance. It belongs to us, as well as to our fathers. As upon this day, ninety-three years ago, this nation was brought into existence through the efforts of others, so, upon this day, six years ago, I am disposed to believe through our own efforts, it dramatically touched the climax of its great argument.

The time that has since elapsed enables us now to look back and to see things in their true proportions. We begin to realize that the years we have so recently passed through, though we did not appreciate it at the time, were the heroic years of American history. Now that their passionate excitement is over, it is pleasant to dwell upon them—to recall the rising of a great people—the call to arms as it boomed from our hill-tops and clashed from our steeples—the eager patriotism of that fierce April which kindled new sympathies in every bosom, which caused the miser to give freely of his wealth, the wife with eager hands to pack the knapsack of her husband, and mothers, with eyes glistening with tears of pride, to look out upon the glistening bayonets of their boys; then came the frenzy of impatience and the defeat entailed upon us by

rashness and inexperience, before our nation settled down, solidly and patiently, to its work, determined to save itself from destruction; and then followed the long, weary years of fear and hope, until at last that day came six years ago which we now celebrate—the day which saw the flood-tide of rebellion reach high-water mark, whence it never after ceased to recede. At the moment, probably, none of us, either at home or at the seat of war, realized the grandeur of the situation—the dramatic power of the incidents, or the Titanic nature of the conflict. To you who were at home—mothers, fathers, wives, sisters, brothers, citizens of the common country, if nothing else—the agony of suspense, the anxiety, the joy, and, too often, the grief which was to know no end, which marked the passage of those days, left little either of time or inclination to dwell upon aught save the horrid reality of the drama. To others, who more immediately participated in those great events, the daily vexations and annoyances—the hot and dusty day—the sleepless, anxious night—the rain upon the unsheltered bivouac—the deep lassitude which succeeded the excitement of action—the cruel orders which recognized no fatigue and made no allowance for labors undergone—all these small trials of the soldier's life made it possible to but few to realize the grandeur of the drama in which they were playing a part. Yet we were not wholly oblivious of it. Now and then I come across strange evidences of this in turning over the leaves of the few weather-stained, dog-eared volumes which were the companions of my life in camp. The title-page of one bears witness to the fact that it was my companion at Gettysburg, and in it I recently found some lines of Browning's noble poem of *Saul* marked and altered to express my sense of our situation, and bearing date upon this very 5th of July. The poet had described in them the fall of snow in the spring-time from a mountain, under which nestled a valley; the altering of a few words made them well describe the approach of our army to Gettysburg.

"Fold on fold, all at once, we crowd thundrously down to your feet,
And there fronts you, stark, black but alive yet, your army of old,
With its rents, the successive bequeathing of conflicts untold;
Yea!—each harm got in fighting your battles, each furrow and scar
Of its head thrust 'twixt you and the tempest—all hail! here we are!"

And there we were, indeed, and then and there was enacted such a celebration as I hope may never again be witnessed there or elsewhere on another 4th of July. Even as I stand here before you, through the lapse of years and the shifting experiences of the recent past visions and memories of those days rise thick and fast before me. We did, indeed, crowd thundrously down to their feet! Of the events of those three terrible days I may speak with feeling and yet with modesty, for small indeed was the part which those with whom I served were called upon to play. When those great bodies of infantry drove together in the crash of battle, the clouds of cavalry which had hitherto covered up their movements were swept aside to the flanks. Our work for that time was done, nor had it been an easy or a pleasant work. The road to Gettysburg had been paved with our bodies and watered with our blood. Three weeks before, in the middle days of June, I, a captain of cavalry, had taken the field at the head of 100 mounted men, the joy and pride of my life. Through twenty days of almost incessant conflict the hand of death had been heavy upon us, and now, upon the eve of Gettysburg, thirty-four of the hundred only remained, and our comrades were dead upon the field of battle, or languishing in hospitals, or prisoners in the hands of the enemy. Six brave young fellows we had buried in one grave where they fell on the heights of Aldie. It was late on the evening of the 1st of July that there came to us rumors of heavy fighting at Gettysburg, near 40 miles away. The regiment happened then to be detached, and its orders for the 2d were to move in the rear of Sedgwick's Corps and see that no man left the column. All that day we marched to the sound of the cannon; Sedgwick, very grim and stern, was pressing forward his tired men, and we soon saw that for once there would be no stragglers from the ranks. As the day grew old, and as we passed rapidly up from the rear to the head of the col-

umn, the roar of battle grew more distinct, until at last we crowned a hill, and the contest broke upon us. Across the deep valley, some 2 miles away, we could see the white smoke of the bursting shells, while below the sharp, incessant rattle of the musketry told of the fierce struggle that was going on. Before us ran the straight, white, dusty road, choked with artillery, ambulances, caissons, ammunition trains, all pressing forward to the field of battle, while mixed among them, their bayonets gleaming through the dustlike wavelets on a river of steel, tired, footsore, hungry, thirsty, begrimed with sweat and dust, the gallant infantry of Sedgwick's Corps hurried to the sound of the cannon as men might have flocked to a feast. Moving rapidly forward, we crossed the brook which runs so prominently across the map of the field of battle, and halted on its farther side to await our orders. Hardly had I dismounted from my horse when, looking back, I saw that the head of the column had reached the brook and deployed and halted on its other bank, and already the stream was filled with naked men shouting with pleasure as they washed off the sweat of their long day's march. Even as I looked, the noise of the battle grew louder, and soon the symptoms of movement were evident. The *rappel* was heard, the bathers hurriedly clad themselves, the ranks were formed, and the sharp, quick snap of the percussion-caps told us the men were preparing their weapons for action. Almost immediately a general officer rode rapidly to the front of the line, addressed to it a few brief, energetic words, the short, sharp order to move by the flank was given, followed immediately by the 'double quick,' the officer placed himself at the head of the column, and that brave infantry, which had marched almost 40 miles since the setting of yesterday's sun—which during that day had hardly known either sleep or food or rest or shelter from the July heat—now, as the shadows grew long, hurried forward on the run to take its place in the front of battle, and to bear up the reeling fortunes of the day.

It is said that, at the crisis of Solferino, Marshal MacMahon appeared with his corps upon the field of battle, his men having run for 7 miles. We need not go abroad for examples of endurance and soldierly bearing. The achievement of Sedgwick and the brave 6th Corps, as they marched upon the field of Gettysburg on that second day of July, far excels the vaunted efforts of the French Zouaves.

Twenty-four hours later we stood upon that same ground; many dear friends had yielded up their young lives during the hours which had elapsed, but, though 20,000 fellow-creatures were wounded or dead around us, though the flood-gates of heaven seemed open and the torrents fell upon the quick and the dead, yet the elements seemed electrified with a certain magnetic influence of victory, and, as the great army sank down overwearied in its tracks, it felt that the crisis and danger was passed—that Gettysburg was immortal.

May I not, then, well express the hope that never again may we or ours be called upon so to celebrate this anniversary? And yet now that the passionate hopes and fears of those days are all over—now that the distracting doubts and untold anxieties are buried and almost forgotten, we love to remember the gathering of the hosts, to hear again in memory the shock of the battle, and to wonder at the magnificence of the drama. The passion and the excitement is gone, and we can look at the work we have done and pronounce upon it. I do not fear the sober second judgment. Our work was a good work; it was well done, and it was done thoroughly. Some one has said, 'Happy is the people which has no history.' Not so! As it is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all, so it is better to have lived greatly, even though we have suffered greatly, than to have passed a long life of inglorious ease. Our generation—yes, we ourselves—have been a part of great things. We have suffered greatly and greatly rejoiced; we have drunk deep of the cup of joy and of sorrow; we have tasted the agony of defeat; and we have supped full with the pleasures of victory. We have proved ourselves equal to great deeds, and have learned what qualities were in us, which, in more peaceful times, we ourselves did not suspect.

And, indeed, I would here, in closing, fain address a few words to such of you, if any such are here, who, like myself,

may have been soldiers during the War of the Rebellion. We should never more be partisans. We have been a part of great events in the service of the common country, we have worn her uniforms, we have received her pay, and devoted ourselves, to the death if need be, in her service. When we were blackened by the smoke of Antietam, we did not ask or care whether those who stood shoulder to shoulder beside us, whether he who led us, whether those who sustained us, were Democrats or Republicans, Conservatives or Radicals; we asked only that they might prove as true as was the steel we grasped, and as brave as we ourselves would fain have been. When we stood like a wall of stone vomiting fire from the heights of Gettysburg, nailed to our position through three long days of mortal hell, did we ask each other whether that brave officer who fell while gallantly leading the counter-charge, whether that cool gunner steadily serving his piece before us midst the storm of shot and shell, whether the poor, wounded, mangled, gasping comrades, crushed and torn, and dying in agony around us, had voted for Lincoln or Douglas, for Breckenridge or Bell? We then were full of other thoughts. We prized men for what they were worth to the common country of us all, and recked not of empty words. Was the man true, was he brave, was he earnest, was all we thought of then, not did he vote or think with us, or label himself with our party name. This lesson let us try to remember. We cannot give to party all that we once offered to country, but our duty is not yet done. We are no longer, what we have been, the young guard of the republic; we have earned an exemption from the dangers of the field and camp, and the old musket or the crossed sabres hang harmless over our winter fires, never more to be grasped in these hands henceforth devoted to more peaceful labors; but the duties of the citizen, and of the citizen who has received his baptism in fire, are still incumbent upon us. Though young in years, we should remember that henceforth, and as long as we live in the land, we are the ancients, the veterans of the republic. As such, it is for us to protect in peace what we preserved in war; it is for us to look at all things with a view to the common country and not to the exigencies of party politics; it is for us ever to bear in mind the higher allegiance we have sworn, and to remember that he who has once been a soldier of the mother-land degrades himself forever when he becomes the slave of faction. Then, at last, if through life we ever bear these lessons freshly in mind, will it be well for us, will it be well for our country, will it be well for those whose name we bear, that our bones also do not moulder with those of our brave comrades beneath the sods of Gettysburg, or that our graves do not look down on the swift-flowing Mississippi from the historic heights of Vicksburg.

Adams, Charles Kendall, educator and historian; born in Derby, Vt., Jan. 24, 1835; was graduated at the University of Michigan, and continued his studies in Germany, France, and Italy. In 1867–85 he was Professor of History in the University of Michigan; in 1885–92 was president of Cornell University; in 1892–1901 was president of the University of Wisconsin; and from 1892 till 1895 was editor-in-chief of the revised edition of Johnson's *Universal Cyclopædia.* He was author of *Democracy and Monarchy in France; Manual of Historical Literature; British Orations; Christopher Columbus, his Life and Work,* etc. He died in Redlands, Cal., July 26, 1902.

Adams, Cyrus Cornelius, geographer; born in Naperville, Ill., Jan. 7, 1849; was educated at the University of Chicago, in 1876. On the founding of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, was chosen president of its department of geography. He is widely known as a writer and lecturer on geographical topics; has travelled extensively; and was a delegate to the International Geographical Congress, in London, England, in 1895, and a speaker at the African Congress, in Atlanta, Ga., the same year. He has made a special study of the geography of Africa, and has collected for the Brooklyn Institute over 2,500 specimens of appliances used in the ten principal countries of the world in geographical education.

Adams, Fort, one of the largest and strongest defensive works in the United States; near Brenton Cove, 3½ miles from the city of Newport, R. I. For

several years the War Department has been engaged in providing for the most thorough fortification of Newport Harbor. In 1894 preliminary plans were completed calling for batteries of sixteen mortars each, to be grouped in sections of four mortars, and provided with a casemate for the gunners, and a wall of sufficient strength to resist hostile attack. Two of these batteries were planned to be erected at Dutch Island and Fort Adams. At both of these points there were already torpedo casements. The new battery at Fort Adams was designed to assist in fortifying the main entrance to Narraganset Bay, while the one at Dutch Island would aid in resisting the approach of an enemy through what is called West Passage. Fort Adams mounts 460 guns, and besides being a work of protection for the city and harbor of Newport, it also protects the United States torpedo station on Goat Island, and the training station for naval apprentices and the Naval War College, both on Coasters Harbor Island.

Adams, GEORGE BURTON, educator and historian; born in Vermont in 1851; Professor of History in Yale University. His late works include: *Civilization during the Middle Ages; Why Americans Dislike England; The Growth of the French Nation;* and *European History, an Outline of its Development.*

Adams, HANNAH, historian; born in Medfield, Mass., in 1755. By an early fondness for study, which was promoted by her father, a man of literary tastes, she obtained a knowledge of Latin and Greek from some divinity students broading at her father's house before she had arrived at full womanhood. Her father, a shopkeeper, failed in business when she was seventeen years of age, and his children were compelled to help themselves. During the war for independence she supported herself by teaching and lace-making. Miss Adams wrote a *History of the Jews,* in which she was assisted by the Abbé Grégoire, with whom she corresponded. She also wrote a *History of New England,* published in 1799. She also wrote books on religious subjects; and, in 1814, published a *Controversy with Dr. Morse* (Rev. Jedidiah). Her autobiography, continued by Mrs. G. G. Lee, was published in 1832. Miss Adams was small in stature, very deaf in her old age, fond of strong tea, and an inveterate snuff-taker. She derived very little pecuniary gains from her writings; but her friends established a comfortable annuity for her. She was one of the pioneer literary women of the United States, possessing rare modesty and great purity of character. She died in Brookline, Mass., Nov. 15, 1831. Her remains were the first interred in Mount Auburn Cemetery.

Adams, HENRY, historian; born in Boston, Mass., Feb. 16, 1838; third son of Charles Francis, 1st; was graduated at Harvard College in 1858; acted as private secretary to his father while the latter was American minister to Great Britain, in 1861–68; was Associate Professor of History at Harvard in 1870–77; and editor of the *North American Review* in 1870–76. His principal works are, *Historical Essays; Documents Relating to New England Federalism; History of the United States from 1801 to 1817* (9 volumes).

Adams, HENRY A., JR.; born in Pennsylvania in 1833. Graduated at Annapolis in 1851. Took part in the engagement with the forts at the mouth of Canton River, China, in 1854. Was on the *Brooklyn* at the passage of Forts St. Philip and Jackson in 1862, and also participated in the attack on Fort Fisher. Was highly praised by Admiral Porter in his official despatches.

Adams, HENRY C.; born in Davenport, Ia., 1861. Graduated from Iowa College, 1874. Professor of Political Economy in the University of Michigan since 1887. Director of the division of transportation of the eleventh census; statistician to Interstate Commerce Commission since 1887; president American Economic Association from 1895–97. He has written *Lectures on Political Economy; State in Relation to Industrial Action; Public Debts; The Science of Finance.*

Adams, HERBERT BAXTER, historian and editor; born in Shutesbury, Mass., April 16, 1850; was graduated at Amherst College in 1872 and at Heidelberg University in 1876; and in 1878–81 was successively Associate Professor and Professor of History in Johns Hopkins University; also in 1878–81 lecturer in Smith

College, Northampton, Mass. He had been for many years secretary of the American Historical Association and editor of its *Reports*, editor of the *Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science*, and editor of *Contributions to American Educational History*, published by the United States board of education. He wrote a large number of educational and historical monographs. He died in Amherst, Mass., July 30, 1901.

Adams, Isaac, inventor; born in Rochester, N. H., in 1803; learned the cabinet-maker's trade; in 1824 settled in Boston and worked in a machine shop. He invented the printing-press to which his name was given in 1828, and two years later it was perfected and soon came to be generally used. In 1840 he was elected to the Massachusetts Senate. He died in Sandwich, N. H., July 19, 1883.

ADAMS, JOHN

Adams, John, second President of the United States; from 1797 to 1801; Federalist; born in Braintree (near Quincy), Mass., Oct. 30, 1735. He was graduated at Harvard College in 1755, and immediately afterwards taught school at Worcester, where he began the study of law. His father was in moderate circumstances—a selectman and a farmer. Beginning the profession of law in Braintree in 1758, he soon acquired a good practice; and, when he was twenty-nine years of age, he married Abigail Smith, an accomplished woman possessed of great common-sense. His first appearance in the political arena was as author of *Instructions of the Town of Braintree to its Representatives on the Subject of the Stamp Act*, which was adopted by over forty towns. Associated with Gridley and Otis in supporting a memorial addressed to the governor and council, praying that the courts might proceed without the use of stamps, Adams opened the case by declaring that the Stamp Act was void, as Parliament had no right to make such a law. He began early to write political essays for the newspapers; and, in 1768, he went to Boston, when the town was greatly excited by political disturbances. There he was counsel for Captain Preston in the case of the "Boston Massacre" (see Boston), and in the same year (1770) he was elected to a seat in the General Court. From that time John Adams was a leader among the patriots in Massachusetts. He was a delegate to the first Continental Congress (1774), where he took a leading part. Returning, he was elected a member of the Provincial Congress. He was an efficient speaker and most useful committee-man in the Continental Congress until he was appointed commissioner to France late in 1777, to supersede Deane. He advocated, helped to frame, voted for, and signed the Declaration of Independence, and he was a most efficient member of the Board of War from June, 1776, until December, 1777. He reached Paris April 8, 1778, where he found a feud between Franklin and Lee, two other commissioners. He advised intrusting that mission to one commissioner, and Franklin was made sole ambassador. He was appointed minister (1779) to treat with Great Britain for peace, and sailed for France in November. He did not serve as commissioner there, but, in July, 1780, he went to Holland to negotiate a loan. He was also received by the States-General as United States minister, April 19, 1782. He obtained a loan for Congress of $2,000,000, and made a treaty of amity and commerce. He returned to Paris in October, and assisted in negotiating the preliminary treaty of peace. With Franklin and Jay, he negotiated a treaty of commerce with Great Britain; and, in the following winter, he negotiated for another Dutch loan.

In 1785 Adams went as minister to the English Court, and there he prepared his *Defence of the American Constitution*. Being coldly received, he returned home, and, in 1788, was elected Vice-President of the United States under the national Constitution. He sustained the policy of Washington through the eight years of his administration, opposed the French Revolution, and was a strong advocate for the neutrality of the United States. In 1796

he was chosen President by a small majority over Jefferson, and his administration was vehemently opposed by the new party known as Republicans, led by the latter, its real founder. He had much trouble with the French Directory throughout his entire administration, and drew upon himself great blame for favoring the Alien and Sedition Law. In his eagerness for re-election Adams offended a powerful faction of his party, and was beaten by Jefferson at the election in 1800. Then he retired to private life, where he watched the course of events with great interest for twenty-five years longer, dying July 4, 1826. His death occurred on the same day, and at almost the same hour, as that of Jefferson, his colleague on the drafting committee and in signing of the Declaration of Independence, fifty years before. His biography, diary, essays, and correspondence were edited and published, in 10 octavo volumes, by his grandson, Charles Francis Adams. Though courteous in his manner usually, he was, at times, irritable and imperious. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

While he was teaching school at Worcester, in 1755, he wrote a letter to Nathan Webb, in which he remarked: "Mighty states and kingdoms are not exempted from change. . . . Soon after the Reformation, a few people came over into this new world for conscience' sake. This apparently trivial incident may transfer the great seat of empire to America. . . . If we can remove the turbulent Gallics, our people, according to the exactest calculations, will, in another century, become more numerous than in England itself. The united force of Europe will not be able to subdue us. The only way to keep us from setting up for ourselves is to disunite us." Less than thirty years afterwards the prophet stood before the monarch of England as the representative of an American republic, where, only ten years before, were flourishing English colonies. And just a century after that prophecy was uttered the number and strength of the people here exceeded the calculation of young Adams. The population then was more than double that of England; and, while his country was fiercely torn by civil war, its government defied the power of Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Papal States, whose rulers were enemies of republican government. Lord Kanes uttered a similar prophecy in 1765.

On June 1, 1785, he was introduced by the Marquis of Carmarthen to the King of Great Britain as ambassador extraordinary from the United States of America to the Court of London. The inexecution of the treaty of peace on the part of Great Britain had threatened an open rupture between the two nations. Adams was sent with full powers to arrange all matters in dispute. His mission was almost fruitless. He found the temper of the British people, from the peasant up to the monarch, very unfriendly to the United States. He was never insulted, but the chilliness of the social atmosphere and the studied neglect of his official representations often excited hot indignation in his bosom. But his government, under the old confederation, was so weak and powerless that he was compelled to endure the hauteur of British officials in silence. They gave him to understand that they would make no arrangements about commercial relations between the two governments; and when he proposed to his own government to pass countervailing navigation laws for the benefit of American commerce, he was met by the stern fact that it possessed no power to do so. At length, believing his mission to be useless, and the British government sturdily refusing to send a minister to the United States, Mr. Adams asked and obtained permission to return home.

Mr. Adams saw with alarm the contagion of revolution that went out from Paris, in 1789, affecting England, and, in a degree, his own country. It was different, in form and substance, from that which had made his own people free. With a view to avert its evil tendencies, he wrote a series of articles for a newspaper, entitled *Discourses on Davila.* These contained an analysis of Davila's *History of the Civil War in France*, in the sixteenth century. In those essays he maintained that, as self-esteem was the great spring of human activity, it was important in a popular government to provide for the moderate gratification of a desire for distinction, applause, and admiration. He therefore advocated a liberal use of titles and ceremonial honors for those in

office, and an aristocratic Senate. He proposed a popular Assembly on the broadest democratic basis to counteract any undue influence; and to keep in check encroachments upon each other, he recommended a powerful executive. The publication of these essays at that time was unfortunate, when jealousy was rife in the public mind concerning the national Constitution. His ideas were so cloudily expressed that his meaning was misunderstood by many and misinterpreted by a few. He was charged with advocating a monarchy and a hereditary Senate. The essays disgusted Jefferson, who for a time cherished the idea that Hamilton, Adams, Jay, and others were at the head of a conspiracy to overthrow the republican institutions of the United States.

The Threatening Attitude of France.—On May 16, 1797, President Adams communicated the following message to the Congress on the serious relations which had sprung up between the United States and France:

Gentlemen of the Senate and Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,—The personal inconveniences to the members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives in leaving their families and private affairs at this season of the year are so obvious that I the more regret the extraordinary occasion which has rendered the convention of Congress indispensable.

It would have afforded me the highest satisfaction to have been able to congratulate you on the restoration of peace to the nations of Europe whose animosities have endangered our tranquillity; but we have still abundant cause of gratitude to the Supreme Dispenser of national blessings for general health and promising seasons, for domestic and social happiness, for the rapid progress and ample acquisitions of industry through extensive territories, for civil, political, and religious liberty. While other states are desolated with foreign war or convulsed with intestine divisions, the United States present the pleasing prospect of a nation governed by mild and equal laws, generally satisfied with the possession of their rights, neither envying the advantages nor fearing the power of other nations, solicitous only for the maintenance of order and justice and the preservation of liberty, increasing daily in their attachment to a system of government in proportion to their experience of its utility, yielding a ready and general obedience to laws flowing from the reason and resting on the only solid foundation—the affections of the people.

It is with extreme regret that I shall be obliged to turn your thoughts to other circumstances, which admonish us that some of these felicities may not be lasting But if the tide of our prosperity is full and a reflux commencing, a vigilant circumspection becomes us, that we may meet our reverses with fortitude and extricate ourselves from their consequences with all the skill we possess and all the efforts in our power.

In giving to Congress information of the state of the Union and recommending to their consideration such measures as appear to me to be necessary or expedient, according to my constitutional duty, the causes and the objects of the present extraordinary session will be explained.

After the President of the United States received information that the French government had expressed serious discontents at some proceedings of the government of these States said to affect the interests of France, he thought it expedient to send to that country a new minister, fully instructed to enter on such amicable discussions and to give such candid explanations as might happily remove the discontents and suspicions of the French government and vindicate the conduct of the United States. For this purpose he selected from among his fellow-citizens a character whose integrity, talents, experience, and services had placed him in the rank of the most esteemed and respected in the nation. The direct object of his mission was expressed in his letter of credence to the French Republic, being "to maintain that good understanding which from the commencement of the alliance had subsisted between the two nations, and to efface unfavorable impressions, banish suspicions, and restore that cordiality which was at once the evidence and pledge of a friendly union." And his instructions were to the same effect, "faithfully to represent the disposition of the government and people of the United States (their disposition being one), to remove jealousies and obviate complaints by showing that they were groundless, to restore that

mutual confidence which had been so unfortunately and injuriously impaired, and to explain the relative interests of both countries and the real sentiments of his own."

A minister thus specially commissioned it was expected would have proved the instrument of restoring mutual confidence between the two republics. The first step of the French government corresponded with that expectation. A few days before his arrival at Paris the French minister of foreign relations informed the American minister then resident at Paris of the formalities to be observed by himself in taking leave, and by his successor preparatory to his reception. These formalities they observed, and on December 9 presented officially to the minister of foreign relations, the one a copy of his letters of recall, the other a copy of his letters of credence.

These were laid before the Executive Directory. Two days afterwards the minister of foreign relations informed the recalled American minister that the Executive Directory had determined not to receive another minister plenipotentiary from the United States until after the redress of grievances demanded of the American government, and which the French Republic had a right to expect from it. The American minister immediately endeavored to ascertain whether by refusing to receive him it was intended that he should retire from the territories of the French Republic, and verbal answers were given that such was the intention of the Directory. For his own justification he desired a written answer, but obtained none until towards the last of January, when, receiving notice in writing to quit the territories of the republic, he proceeded to Amsterdam, where he proposed to wait for instruction from this government. During his residence at Paris cards of hospitality were refused him, and he was threatened with being subjected to the jurisdiction of the minister of police; but with becoming firmness he insisted on the protection of the law of nations due to him as the known minister of a foreign power. You will derive further information from his despatches, which will be laid before you.

As it is often necessary that nations should treat for the mutual advantage of their affairs, and especially to accommodate and terminate differences, and as they can treat only by ministers, the right of embassy is well known and established by the law and usage of nations. The refusal on the part of France to receive our minister is, then, the denial of a right; but the refusal to receive him until we have acceded to their demands without discussion and without investigation is to treat us neither as allies nor as friends, nor as a sovereign state.

With this conduct of the French government it will be proper to take into view the public audience given to the late minister of the United States on his taking leave of the Executive Directory. The speech of the President discloses sentiments more alarming than the refusal of a minister, because more dangerous to our independence and union, and at the same time studiously marked with indignities towards the government of the United States. It evinces a disposition to separate the people of the United States from the government, to persuade them that they have different affections, principles, and interests from those of their fellow-citizens whom they themselves have chosen to manage their common concerns, and thus to produce divisions fatal to our peace. Such attempts ought to be repelled with a decision which shall convince France and the world that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign influence, and regardless of national honor, character, and interest.

I should have been happy to have thrown a veil over these transactions if it had been possible to conceal them; but they have passed on the great theatre of the world, in the face of all Europe and America, and with such circumstances of publicity and solemnity that they cannot be disguised and will not soon be forgotten. They have inflicted a wound in the American breast. It is my sincere desire, however, that it may be healed.

It is my sincere desire, and in this I presume I concur with you and with your constituents, to preserve peace and friendship with all nations; and believing that neither the honor nor the interest of the United States absolutely forbid the repetition of advances for securing these de-

sirable objects with France, I shall institute a fresh attempt at negotiation, and shall not fail to promote and accelerate an accommodation on terms compatible with the rights, duties, interests, and honor of the nation. If we have committed errors, and these can be demonstrated, we shall be willing to correct them; if we have done injuries, we shall be willing on conviction to redress them; and equal measures of justice we have a right to expect from France and every other nation.

The diplomatic intercourse between the United States and France being at present suspended, the government has no means of obtaining official information from that country. Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that the Executive Directory passed a decree on the 2d of March last contravening in part the treaty of amity and commerce of 1778, injurious to our lawful commerce and endangering the lives of our citizens. A copy of this decree will be laid before you.

While we are endeavoring to adjust all our differences with France by amicable negotiation, the progress of the war in Europe, the depredations on our commerce, the personal injuries to our citizens, and the general complexion of affairs render it my indispensable duty to recommend to your consideration effectual measures of defence.

The commerce of the United States has become an interesting object of attention, whether we consider it in relation to the wealth and finances or the strength and resources of the nation. With a sea-coast of near 2,000 miles in extent, opening a field for fisheries, navigation, and commerce, a great portion of our citizens naturally apply their industry and enterprise to these objects. Any serious and permanent injury to commerce would not fail to produce the most embarrassing disorders. To prevent it from being undermined and destroyed it is essential that it receive an adequate protection.

The naval establishment must occur to every man who considers the injuries committed on our commerce, the insults offered to our citizens, and the description of vessels by which these abuses have been practised. As the sufferings of our mercantile and seafaring citizens cannot be ascribed to the omission of duties demandable, considering the neutral situation of our country, they are to be attributed to the hope of impunity arising from a supposed inability on our part to afford protection. To resist the consequences of such impressions on the minds of foreign nations and to guard against the degradation and servility which they must finally stamp on the American character is an important duty of government.

A naval power, next to the militia, is the natural defence of the United States. The experience of the last war would be sufficient to show that a moderate naval force, such as would easily be within the present abilities of the Union, would have been sufficient to have baffled many formidable transportations of troops from one State to another, which were then practised. Our sea-coasts, from their great extent, are more easily annoyed and more easily defended by a naval force than any other. With all the materials our country abounds; in skill our naval architects and navigators are equal to any; and commanders and seamen will not be wanting.

But although the establishment of a permanent system of naval defence appears to be requisite, I am sensible it cannot be formed so speedily and extensively as the present crisis demands. Hitherto I have thought proper to prevent the sailing of armed vessels except on voyages to the East Indies, where general usage and the danger from pirates appeared to render the permission proper. Yet the restriction has originated solely from a wish to prevent collisions with the powers at war, contravening the act of Congress of June, 1794, and not from any doubt entertained by me of the policy and propriety of permitting our vessels to employ means of defence while engaged in a lawful foreign commerce. It remains for Congress to prescribe such regulations as will enable our seafaring citizens to defend themselves against violations of the law of nations, and at the same time restrain them from committing acts of hostility against the powers at war. In addition to this voluntary provision for defence by individual citizens, it appears to me necessary to equip the frigates, and provide other vessels of inferior force, to take un-

der convoy such merchant vessels as shall remain unarmed.

The greater part of the cruisers whose depredations have been most injurious have been built and some of them partially equipped in the United States. Although an effectual remedy may be attended with difficulty, yet I have thought it my duty to present the subject generally to your consideration. If a mode can be devised by the wisdom of Congress to prevent the resources of the United States from being converted into the means of annoying our trade, a great evil will be prevented. With the same view, I think it proper to mention that some of our citizens resident abroad have fitted out privateers, and others have voluntarily taken the command, or entered on board of them, and committed spoliations on the commerce of the United States. Such unnatural and iniquitous practices can be restrained only by severe punishment.

But besides a protection of our commerce on the seas, I think it highly necessary to protect it at home, where it is collected in our most important ports. The distance of the United States from Europe, and the well-known promptitude, ardor, and courage of the people in defence of their country, happily diminish the probability of invasion. Nevertheless, to guard against sudden and predatory incursions the situation of some of our principal seaports demands your consideration. And as our country is vulnerable in other interests besides those of its commerce, you will seriously deliberate whether the means of general defence ought not to be increased by an addition to the regular artillery and cavalry, and by arrangements for forming a provisional army.

With the same view, and as a measure which, even in a time of universal peace, ought not to be neglected, I recommend to your consideration a revision of the laws for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, to render that natural and safe defence of the country efficacious.

Although it is very true that we ought not to involve ourselves in the political system of Europe, but to keep ourselves always distinct and separate from it if we can, yet to effect this separation early, punctual, and continual information of the current chain of events and of the political projects in contemplation is no less necessary than if we were directly concerned in them. It is necessary, in order to the discovery of the efforts made to draw us into the vortex, in season to make preparations against them. However we may consider ourselves, the maritime and commercial powers of the world will consider the United States of America as forming a weight in that balance of power in Europe which never can be forgotten or neglected. It would not only be against our interest, but it would be doing wrong to one-half of Europe, at least, if we should voluntarily throw ourselves into either scale. It is a natural policy for a nation that studies to be neutral to consult with other nations engaged in the same studies and pursuits. At the same time that measures might be pursued with this view, our treaties with Prussia and Sweden, one of which is expired and the other near expiring, might be renewed.

Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,—It is particularly your province to consider the state of the public finances, and to adopt such measures respecting them as exigencies shall be found to require. The preservation of public credit, the regular extinguishment of the public debt, and a provision of funds to defray any extraordinary expenses will, of course, call for your serious attention. Although the imposition of new burthens cannot be in itself agreeable, yet there is no ground to doubt that the American people will expect from you such measures as their actual engagements, their present security, and future interests demand.

Gentlemen of the Senate and Gentlemen of the House of Representatives,—The present situation of our country imposes an obligation on all the departments of government to adopt an explicit and decided conduct. In my situation an exposition of the principles by which my administration will be governed ought not to be omitted.

It is impossible to conceal from ourselves or the world what has been before observed, that endeavors have been employed to foster and establish a division between the government and people of the United States. To investigate the causes which have encouraged this attempt is not

necessary, but to repel, by decided and united councils, insinuations so derogatory to the honor and aggressions so dangerous to the Constitution, Union, and even independence of the nation is an indispensable duty.

It must not be permitted to be doubted whether the people of the United States will support the government established by their voluntary consent and appointed by their free choice, or whether, by surrendering themselves to the direction of foreign and domestic factions, in opposition to their own government, they will forfeit the honorable station they have hitherto maintained.

For myself, having never been indifferent to what concerned the interests of my country, devoted the best part of my life to obtain and support its independence, and constantly witnessed the patriotism, fidelity, and perseverance of my fellow-citizens on the most trying occasions, it is not for me to hesitate or abandon a cause in which my heart has been so long engaged.

Convinced that the conduct of the government has been just and impartial to foreign nations, that those internal regulations which have been established by law for the preservation of peace are in their nature proper, and that they have been fairly executed, nothing will ever be done by me to impair the national engagements, to innovate upon principles which have been so deliberately and uprightly established, or to surrender in any manner the rights of the government. To enable me to maintain this declaration I rely, under God, with entire confidence on the firm and enlightened support of the national legislature and upon the virtue and patriotism of my fellow-citizens.

JOHN ADAMS.

The Fourth of July.—In a letter to his wife, dated Philadelphia, July 3, 1776, Mr. Adams made the following predictions:

Had a declaration of independence been made seven months ago, it would have been attended with many great and glorious effects. We might, before this hour, have formed alliance with foreign states. We should have mastered Quebec and been in possession of Canada.

You will, perhaps, wonder how much a declaration would have influenced our affairs in Canada; but, if I could write with freedom, I could easily convince you that it would, and explain to you the manner how. Many gentlemen in high stations and of great influence have been duped, by the ministerial bubble of commissioners, to treat; and in real, sincere expectation of this event, which they so fondly wished, they have been slow and languid in promoting measures for the reduction of that province. Others there are in the colonies who really wished that our enterprise in Canada would be defeated; that the colonies might be brought into danger and distress between two fires, and be thus induced to submit. Others really wished to defeat the expedition to Canada, lest the conquest of it should elevate the minds of the people too much to harken to those terms of reconciliation which they believed would be offered us. These jarring views, wishes, and designs occasioned an opposition to many salutary measures which were proposed for the support of that expedition, and caused obstructions, embarrassments, and studied delays, which have finally lost us the province.

All these causes, however, in conjunction, would not have disappointed us, if it had not been for a misfortune which could not have been foreseen, and perhaps could not have been prevented—I mean the prevalence of the small-pox among our troops. This fatal pestilence completed our destruction. It is a frown of Providence upon us, which we ought to lay to heart.

But, on the other hand, the delay of this declaration to this time has many great advantages attending it. The hopes of reconciliation which were fondly entertained by multitudes of honest and well-meaning, though short-sighted and mistaken, people have been gradually, and at last totally, extinguished. Time has been given for the whole people maturely to consider the great question of independence, and to ripen their judgment, dissipate their fears, and allure their hopes, by discussing it in newspapers and pamphlets, by debating it in assemblies, conventions, committees of safety and inspection, in town and county meetings, as well as in private conversations, so that the whole people, in every colony, have now adopted it as their own act. This will

cement the union, and avoid those heats, and perhaps convulsions, which might have been occasioned by such a declaration six months ago.

But the day is past. The second day of July, 1776, will be a memorable epoch in the history of America. I am apt to believe that it will be celebrated by succeeding generations as the great Anniversary Festival. It ought to be commemorated, as the day of deliverance, by solemn acts of devotion to God Almighty. It ought to be solemnized with pomp, shows, games, sports, guns, bells, bonfires, and illuminations, from one end of the continent to the other, from this time forward forever.

You may think me transported with enthusiasm; but I am not. I am well aware of the toil and blood and treasure that it will cost us to maintain this declaration and support and defend these States. Yet, through all the gloom, I can see the rays of light and glory; I can see that the end is more than worth all the means, and that posterity will triumph, although you and I may rue, which I hope we shall not.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY

Adams, JOHN QUINCY, sixth President of the United States; from 1825 to 1829; Republican; born in Braintree, Mass., July 11, 1767; was a son of President John Adams; and was graduated at Harvard College in 1787. In February, 1778, he accompanied his father to France, where he studied the French and Latin languages for nearly two years. After an interval, he returned to France and resumed his studies, which were subsequently pursued at Amsterdam and at the University of Leyden. At the age of fourteen years, he accompanied Mr. Dana to Russia as his private secretary. The next year he spent some time at Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Hamburg. He afterwards accompanied his father (who was American minister) to England and France and returned home with him early in 1785. After his graduation at Harvard, he studied law with the eminent Theophilus Parsons, practised at Boston, and soon became distinguished as a political writer.

In 1791 he published a series of articles in favor of neutrality with France over the signature of "Publius." He was engaged in the diplomatic service of his country as minister, successively, to Holland, England, and Prussia from 1794 to 1801. He received a commission, in 1798, to negotiate a treaty with Sweden. At Berlin he wrote a series of *Letters from Silesia*. Mr. Adams married Louisa, daughter of Joshua Johnson, American consul at London, in 1797. He took a seat in the Senate of Massachusetts in 1802, and he occupied one in that of the United States from 1803 until 1808, when disagreeing with the legislature of Massachusetts on the embargo question, he resigned. From 1806 to 1809 he was Professor of Rhetoric in Harvard College. In the latter year he was appointed by President Madison minister to Russia; and in 1814, while serving in that office, he was chosen one of the United States commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace at Ghent. After that, he and Henry Clay and Albert Gallatin negotiated a commercial treaty with Great Britain, which was signed July 13, 1815. Mr. Adams remained in London as minister until 1817, when he was recalled to take the office of Secretary of State. This was at the beginning of what was popularly known as the "era of good feeling," the settlement of questions growing out of the war with Great Britain (1812–15) having freed the government from foreign political embarrassments and enabled it to give fuller attention to domestic concerns. During his occupation of this office Mr. Adams was identified with the negotiation of the treaty with Spain by which Florida was ceded to the United States for $5,000,000, and by which also the boundary between Louisiana and Mexico was established. He is credited with having been the author of the declaration known as the "Monroe Doctrine" (see MONROE, JAMES). The closing part of his term as Secretary was marked by the legislation of the "Missouri Compromise" (see MISSOURI). When President Monroe

submitted to his cabinet the two questions concerning the interpretation of the act as passed by the Congress, Mr. Adams stood alone in the opinion that the word "forever" meant forever.

When Monroe's administration was drawing to a close, several prominent men were spoken of as candidates for the Presidency—William H. Crawford, John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, and Andrew Jackson. The votes in the autumn of 1824 showed that the people had not elected either of the candidates; and when the votes of the Electoral College were counted, it was found that the choice of President devolved upon the House of Representatives, in accordance with the 12th Amendment. In February, 1825, that body chose John Quincy Adams President. Mr. Adams received the votes of 13 States on the first ballot, General Jackson 7 States, and Mr. Crawford 4 States. Mr. Calhoun received the votes of 182 of the electors, against 78 for all others. The Electoral College had given Jackson the largest vote of any candidate—99—and Adams 84. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

In 1831 Mr. Adams was elected to Congress, and was continued in it by successive elections until his death, which occurred suddenly in the Capitol, on Feb. 23, 1848. His last words were, "This is the last of earth; I am content." Mr. Adams was a ripe scholar, an able diplomatist, a life-long opponent of human slavery, a bold and unflinching advocate for its abolition. When he was eighty years of age he was called "The old man eloquent." He wrote prose and poetry with almost equal facility and purity of diction. See LAFAYETTE.

Pan-American Union.—On Dec. 26, 1825, President Adams sent the following message to the Senate, in which he amplified the views concerning a Pan-American union which he had expressed in a previous message:

To the Senate of the United States,—In the messages to both Houses of Congress at the commencement of the session, it was mentioned that the governments of the republics of Colombia, of Mexico, and of Central America had severally invited the government of the United States to be represented at the congress of American nations to be assembled at Panama to deliberate upon objects of peculiar concernment to this hemisphere, and that this invitation had been accepted.

Although this measure was deemed to be within the constitutional competency of the executive, I have not thought proper to take any step in it before ascertaining that my opinion of its expediency will concur with that of both branches of the legislature, first, by the decision of the Senate upon the nominations to be laid before them, and, secondly, by the sanction of both Houses to the appropriations, without which it cannot be carried into effect.

A report from the Secretary of State, and copies of the correspondence with the South American governments on this subject since the invitation given by them, are herewith transmitted to the Senate. They will disclose the objects of importance which are expected to form a subject of discussion at this meeting, in which interests of high importance to this Union are involved. It will be seen that the United States neither intend nor are expected to take part in any deliberations of a belligerent character; that the motive of their attendance is neither to contract alliances nor to engage in any undertaking or project importing hostility to any other nation.

But the Southern American nations, in the infancy of their independence, often find themselves in positions with reference to other countries with the principles applicable to which, derivable from the state of independence itself, they have not been familiarized by experience. The result of this has been that sometimes in their intercourse with the United States, they have manifested dispositions to reserve a right of granting special favors and privileges to the Spanish nation as the price of their recognition. At others they have actually established duties and impositions operating unfavorably to the United States, to the advantage of other European powers, and sometimes they have appeared to consider that they might interchange among themselves mutual concessions of exclusive favor, to which neither European powers nor the United States should be admitted. In most of

these cases their regulations unfavorable to us have yielded to friendly expostulation and remonstrance. But it is believed to be of infinite moment that the principles of a liberal commercial intercourse should be exhibited to them, and urged with disinterested and friendly persuasion upon them when all assembled for the avowed purpose of consulting together upon the establishment of such principles as may have an important bearing upon their future welfare.

The consentaneous adoption of principles of maritime neutrality, and favorable to the navigation of peace, and commerce in time of war, will also form a subject of consideration to this congress. The doctrine that free ships make free goods and the restrictions of reason upon the extent of blockades may be established by general agreement with far more ease, and perhaps with less danger, by the general engagement to adhere to them concerted at such a meeting, than by partial treaties or conventions with each of the nations separately. An agreement between all the parties represented at the meeting that each will guard by its own means against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders may be found advisable. This was more than two years since announced by my predecessor to the world as a principle resulting from the emancipation of both the American continents. It may be so developed to the new southern nations that they will all feel it as an essential appendage to their independence.

There is yet another subject upon which, without entering into any treaty, the moral influence of the United States may perhaps be exerted with beneficial consequences at such a meeting—the advancement of religious liberty. Some of the southern nations are even so far under the dominion of prejudice that they have incorporated with their political constitutions an exclusive church, without toleration of any other than the dominant sect. The abandonment of this last badge of religious bigotry and oppression may be pressed more effectually by the united exertions of those who concur in the principles of freedom of conscience upon those who are yet to be convinced of their justice and wisdom than by the solitary efforts of a minister to any one of the separate governments.

The indirect influence which the United States may exercise upon any projects or purposes originating in the war in which the southern republics are still engaged, which might seriously affect the interests of this Union, and the good offices by which the United States may ultimately contribute to bring that war to a speedier termination, though among the motives which have convinced me of the propriety of complying with this invitation, are so far contingent and eventual that it would be improper to dwell upon them more at large.

In fine, a decisive inducement with me for acceding to the measure is to show by this token of respect to the southern republics the interest that we take in their welfare and our disposition to comply with their wishes. Having been the first to recognize their independence, and sympathize with them so far as was compatible with our natural duties in all their struggles and sufferings to acquire it, we have laid the foundation of our future intercourse with them in the broadest principles of reciprocity and the most cordial feelings of fraternal friendship. To extend those principles to all our commercial relations with them and to hand down that friendship to future ages is congenial to the highest policy of the Union, as it will be to that of all those nations and their posterity. In the confidence that these sentiments will meet the approbation of the Senate, I nominate Richard C. Anderson, of Kentucky, and John Sergeant, of Pennsylvania, to be envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary to the assembly of American nations at Panama, and William B. Rochester, of New York, to be secretary to the mission.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

On March 15, 1826, he sent the following reply to a House resolution:

To the House of Representatives of the United States,—In compliance with the resolution of the House of the 5th ultimo, requesting me to cause to be laid before the House so much of the correspondence between the government of the United States and the new states of America, or their ministers,

respecting the proposed congress or meeting of diplomatic agents at Panama, and such information respecting the general character of that expected congress as may be in my possession and as may, in my opinion, be communicated without prejudice to the public interest, and also to inform the House, so far as in my opinion the public interest may allow, in regard to what objects the agents of the United States are expected to take part in the deliberations of that congress, I now transmit to the House a report from the Secretary of State, with the correspondence and information requested by the resolution.

With regard to the objects in which the agents of the United States are expected to take part in the deliberations of that congress, I deem it proper to premise that these objects did not form the only, nor even the principal, motive for my acceptance of the invitation. My first and greatest inducement was to meet in the spirit of kindness and friendship an overture made in that spirit by three sister republics of this hemisphere.

The great revolution in human affairs which has brought into existence, nearly at the same time, eight sovereign and independent nations in our own quarter of the globe has placed the United States in a situation not less novel and scarcely less interesting than that in which they had found themselves by their own transition from a cluster of colonies to a nation of sovereign States. The deliverance of the South American republics from the oppression under which they had been so long afflicted was hailed with great unanimity by the people of this Union as among the most auspicious events of the age. On the 4th of May, 1822, an act of Congress made an appropriation of $100,000 "for such missions to the independent nations on the American continent as the President of the United States might deem proper." In exercising the authority recognized by this act my predecessor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appointed successively ministers plenipotentiary to the republics of Colombia, Buenos Ayres, Chile, and Mexico. Unwilling to raise among the fraternity of freedom questions of precedency and etiquette, which even the European monarchs had of late found it necessary in a great measure to discard, he despatched these ministers to Colombia, Buenos Ayres, and Chile without exacting from those republics, as by the ancient principles of political primogeniture he might have done, that the compliment of a plenipotentiary mission should have been paid *first* by them to the United States. The instructions, prepared under his direction, to Mr. Anderson, the first of our ministers to the Southern continent, contain at much length the general principles upon which he thought it desirable that our relations, political and commercial, with these our new neighbors should be established for their benefit and ours and that of the future ages of our posterity. A copy of so much of these instructions as relates to these general subjects is among the papers now transmitted to the House. Similar instructions were furnished to the ministers appointed to Buenos Ayres, Chile, and Mexico, and the system of social intercourse which it was the purpose of those missions to establish from the first opening of our diplomatic relations with those rising nations is the most effective exposition of the principles upon which the invitation to the congress at Panama has been accepted by me, as well as of the objects of negotiation at that meeting, in which it was expected that our plenipotentiaries should take part.

The House will perceive that even at the date of these instructions the first treaties between some of the Southern republics had been concluded by which they had stipulated among themselves this diplomatic assembly at Panama. And it will be seen with what caution, so far as it might concern the policy of the United States, and at the same time with what frankness and good will towards those nations, he gave countenance to their design of inviting the United States to this high assembly for consultation upon *American interests*. It was not considered a conclusive reason for declining this invitation that the proposal for assembling such a congress had not first been made by ourselves. It had sprung from the urgent, immediate, and momentous common interests of the great communities struggling for independence, and, as it were, quickening into life. From them the

proposition to us appeared respectful and friendly; from us to them it could scarcely have been made without exposing ourselves to suspicions of purposes of ambition, if not of domination, more suited to rouse resistance and excite distrust than to conciliate favor and friendship. The first and paramount principle upon which it was deemed wise and just to lay the corner-stone of all our future relations with them was *disinterestedness;* the next was cordial good will to them; the third was a claim of fair and equal reciprocity. Under these impressions when the invitation was formally and earnestly given, had it even been doubtful whether *any* of the objects proposed for consideration and discussion at the congress were such as that immediate and important interests of the United States would be affected by the issue, I should, nevertheless, have determined, so far as it depended upon me, to have accepted the invitation and to have appointed ministers to attend the meeting. The proposal itself implied that the republics by whom it was made *believed* that important interests of ours or of theirs rendered our attendance there desirable. They had given us notice that in the novelty of their situation and in the spirit of deference to our experience they would be pleased to have the benefit of our friendly counsel. To meet the temper with which this proposal was made with a cold repulse was not thought congenial to that warm interest in their welfare with which the people and government of the Union had hitherto gone hand in hand through the whole progress of their revolution. To insult them by a refusal of their overture, and then invite them to a similar assembly to be called by ourselves, was an expedient which never presented itself to the mind. I would have sent ministers to the meeting had it been merely to give them such advice as they might have desired, even with reference to *their own* interests, not involving ours. I would have sent them had it been merely to explain and set forth to them our reasons for *declining* any proposal of specific measures to which they might desire our concurrence, but which we might deem incompatible with our interests or our duties. In the intercourse between nations temper is a missionary perhaps more powerful than talent. Nothing was ever lost by kind treatment. Nothing can be gained by sullen repulses and aspiring pretensions.

But objects of the highest importance, not only to the future welfare of the whole human race, but bearing directly upon the special interests of this Union, *will* engage the deliberations of the congress at Panama, whether we are represented there or not. Others, if we are represented, may be offered by our plenipotentiaries for consideration having in view both these great results—our own interests and the improvement of the condition of man upon earth. It may be that, in the lapse of many centuries, no other opportunity so favorable will be presented to the government of the United States to subserve the benevolent purposes of divine Providence; to dispense the promised blessings of the Redeemer of Mankind; to promote the prevalence in future ages of peace on earth and good - will to man, as will now be placed in their power by participating in the deliberations of this congress.

Among the topics enumerated in official papers published by the republic of Colombia, and adverted to in the correspondence now communicated to the House, as intended to be presented for discussion at Panama, there is scarcely one in which the *result* of the meeting will not deeply affect the interests of the United States. Even those in which the belligerent states alone will take an active part will have a powerful effect upon the state of our relations with the American, and probably with the principal European, states. Were it merely that we might be correctly and speedily informed of the proceedings of the congress, and the progress and issue of their negotiations, I should hold it advisable that we should have an accredited agency with them, placed in such confidential relations with the other members as would insure the authenticity and the safe and early transmission of its reports. Of the same enumerated topics are the preparation of a manifesto setting forth to the world the justice of their cause and the relations they desire to hold with other Christian powers, and to form a convention of navigation and commerce appli-

cable both to the confederated states and to their allies.

It will be within the recollection of the House that, immediately after the close of the war of our independence, a measure closely analogous to this congress of Panama was adopted by the Congress of our Confederation, and for purposes of precisely the same character. Three commissioners, with plenipotentiary powers, were appointed to negotiate treaties of amity, navigation, and commerce with all the principal powers of Europe. They met and resided, for that purpose, about one year at Paris, and the only result of their negotiations at that time was the first treaty between the United States and Prussia—memorable in the diplomatic annals of the world, and precious as a monument of the principles, in relation to commerce and maritime warfare, with which our country entered upon her career as a member of the great family of independent nations. This treaty, prepared in conformity with the instructions of the American plenipotentiaries, consecrated three fundamental principles of the foreign intercourse which the Congress of that period were desirous of establishing: first, equal reciprocity and the mutual stipulation of the privileges of the most favored nation in the commercial exchanges of peace; secondly, the abolition of private war upon the ocean; and, thirdly, restrictions favorable to neutral commerce upon belligerent practices with regard to contraband of war and blockades. A painful, it may be said a calamitous, experience of more than forty years has demonstrated the deep importance of these same principles to the peace and prosperity of this nation, and to the welfare of all maritime states, and has illustrated the profound wisdom with which they were assumed as cardinal points of the policy of the Union.

At that time in the infancy of their political existence, under the influence of those principles of liberty and of right so congenial to the cause in which they had just fought and triumphed, they were able but to obtain the sanction of one great and philosophical, though absolute, sovereign in Europe to their liberal and enlightened principles. They could obtain no more. Since then a political hurricane has gone over three-fourths of the civilized portions of the earth, the desolation of which it may with confidence be expected is passing away, leaving at least the American atmosphere purified and refreshed. And now at this propitious moment the new-born nations of this hemisphere, assembling by their representatives at the isthmus between its two continents to settle the principles of their future international intercourse with other nations and with us, ask in this great exigency for our advice upon those very fundamental maxims which we from our cradle at first proclaimed and partially succeeded to introduce into the code of national law.

Without recurring to that total prostration of all neutral and commercial rights which marked the progress of the late European wars, and which finally involved the United States in them, and adverting only to our political relations with these American nations, it is observable that while in all other respects those relations have been uniformly and without exception of the most friendly and mutually satisfactory character, the only causes of difference and dissension between us and them which ever have arisen originated in those never-failing fountains of discord and irritation—discriminations of commercial favor to other nations, licentious privateers, and paper blockades. I cannot without doing injustice to the republics of Buenos Ayres and Colombia forbear to acknowledge the candid and conciliatory spirit with which they have repeatedly yielded to our friendly representations and remonstrances on these subjects—in repealing discriminative laws which operated to our disadvantage and in revoking the commissions of their privateers, to which Colombia has added the magnanimity of making reparation for unlawful captures by some of her cruisers and of assenting in the midst of war to treaty stipulations favorable to neutral navigation. But the recurrence of these occasions of complaint has rendered the renewal of the discussion which resulted in the removal of them necessary, while in the mean time injuries are sustained by merchants and other individuals of the United States which cannot be repaired, and the remedy lingers

in overtaking the pernicious operation of the mischief. The settlement of general principles pervading with equal efficacy all the American states can alone put an end to these evils, and can alone be accomplished at the proposed assembly.

If it be true that the noblest treaty of peace ever mentioned in history is that by which the Carthagenians were bound to abolish the practice of sacrificing their own children *because it was stipulated in favor of human nature,* I cannot exaggerate to myself the unfading glory with which these United States will go forth in the memory of future ages if, by their friendly counsel, by their moral influence, by the power of argument and persuasion alone, they can prevail upon the American nations at Panama to stipulate by general agreement among themselves, and so far as any of them may be concerned, the perpetual abolition of private war upon the ocean. And if we cannot yet flatter ourselves that this may be accomplished, as advances towards it the establishment of the principle that the friendly flag shall cover the cargo, the curtailment of contraband of war, and the proscription of fictitious paper blockades—engagements which we may reasonably hope will not prove impracticable—will, if successfully inculcated, redound proportionally to our honor and drain the fountain of many a future sanguinary war.

The late President of the United States, in his message to Congress of Dec. 2, 1823, while announcing the negotiation then pending with Russia, relating to the northwest coast of this continent, observed that the occasion of the discussions to which that incident had given rise had been taken for asserting as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States were involved that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they had assumed and maintained, were thenceforward not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power. The principle had first been assumed in that negotiation with Russia. It rested upon a course of reasoning equally simple and conclusive. With the exception of the existing European colonies, which it was in no wise intended to disturb, the two continents consisted of several sovereign and independent nations, whose territories covered their whole surface. By this their independent condition the United States enjoyed the right of commercial intercourse with every part of their possessions. To attempt the establishment of a colony in those possessions would be to usurp to the exclusion of others a commercial intercourse which was the common possession of all. It could not be done without encroaching upon existing rights of the United States. The government of Russia has never disputed these positions nor manifested the slightest dissatisfaction at their having been taken. Most of the new American republics have declared their entire assent to them, and they now propose, among the subjects of consultation at Panama, to take into consideration the means of making effectual the assertion of that principle as well as the means of resisting interference from abroad with the domestic concerns of the American governments.

In alluding to these means it would obviously be premature at this time to anticipate that which is offered merely as matter for consultation, or to pronounce upon those measures which have been or may be suggested. The purpose of this government is to concur in none which would import hostility to Europe or justly excite resentment in any of her states. Should it be deemed advisable to contract any conventional engagement on this topic, our views would extend no further than to a mutual pledge of the parties to the compact to maintain the principle in application to its own territory, and to permit no colonial lodgments or establishment of European jurisdiction upon its own soil; and with respect to the obtrusive interference from abroad—if its future character may be inferred from that which has been and perhaps still is exercised in more than one of the new states—a joint declaration of its character and exposure of it to the world may be probably all that the occasion would require. Whether the United States should or should not be parties to such a declaration may justly form a part of the deliberation. That there is an evil to be remedied needs little insight into the secret history of late years to know, and that this remedy may best be concerted at the Panama meeting

deserves at least the experiment of consideration. A concert of measures having reference to the more effectual abolition of the African slave-trade and the consideration of the light in which the political condition of the island of Hayti is to be regarded are also among the subjects mentioned by the minister from the republic of Colombia as believed to be suitable for deliberation at the congress. The failure of the negotiations with that republic undertaken during the late administration for the suppression of that trade, in compliance with a resolution of the House of Representatives, indicates the expediency of listening with respectful attention to propositions which may contribute to the accomplishment of the great end which was the purpose of that resolution, while the result of those negotiations will serve as admonition to abstain from pledging this government to any arrangement which might be expected to fail of obtaining the advice and consent of the Senate by a constitutional majority to its ratification.

Whether the political condition of the island of Hayti shall be brought at all into discussion at the meeting may be a question for preliminary advisement. There are in the political constitution of government of that people circumstances which have hitherto forbidden the acknowledgment of them by the government of the United States as sovereign and independent. Additional reasons for withholding that acknowledgment have recently been seen in their acceptance of a nominal sovereignty by the *grant* of a foreign prince under conditions equivalent to the concession by them of exclusive commercial advantages to one nation, adapted altogether to the state of colonial vassalage and retaining little of independence but the name. Our plenipotentiaries will be instructed to present these views to the assembly at Panama, and, should they not be concurred in, to decline acceding to any arrangement which may be proposed upon different principles.

The condition of the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico is of deeper import and more immediate bearing upon the present interests and future prospects of our Union. The correspondence herewith transmitted will show how earnestly it has engaged the attention of this government. The invasion of both those islands by the united forces of Mexico and Colombia is avowedly among the objects to be matured by the belligerent states at Panama. The convulsions to which, from the peculiar composition of their population, they would be liable in the event of such an invasion, and the danger therefrom resulting of their falling ultimately into the hands of some European power other than Spain, will not admit of our looking at the consequences to which the congress at Panama may lead with indifference. It is unnecessary to enlarge upon this topic or to say more than that all our efforts in reference to this interest will be to preserve the existing state of things, the tranquillity of the islands, and the peace and security of their inhabitants.

And, lastly, the congress of Panama is believed to present a fair occasion for urging upon all the new nations of the South the just and liberal principles of religious liberty; not by any interference whatever in their internal concerns, but by claiming for our citizens whose occupations or interests may call them to occasional residence in their territories the inestimable privilege of worshipping their Creator according to the dictates of their own consciences. This privilege, sanctioned by the customary law of nations and secured by treaty stipulations in numerous national compacts—secured even to our own citizens in the treaties with Colombia and with the Federation of Central America—is yet to be obtained in the other South American states and Mexico. Existing prejudices are still struggling against it, which may, perhaps, be more successfully combated at this general meeting than at the separate seats of government of each republic.

I can scarcely deem it otherwise than superfluous to observe that the assembly will be in its nature diplomatic and not legislative; that nothing can be transacted there obligatory upon any one of the states to be represented at the meeting, unless with the express concurrence of its own representatives, nor even then, but subject to the ratification of its constitutional authority at home. The faith of the United States to foreign powers cannot otherwise be pledged. I shall, in-

deed, in the first instance, consider the assembly as merely *consultative;* and although the plenipotentiaries of the United States will be empowered to receive and refer to the consideration of their government any proposition from the other parties to the meeting, they will be authorized to conclude nothing unless subject to the definitive sanction of this government in all its constitutional forms. It has therefore seemed to me unnecessary to insist that every object to be discussed at the meeting should be specified with the precision of a judicial sentence, or enumerated with the exactness of a mathematical demonstration. The purpose of the meeting itself is to deliberate upon the great and common *interests* of several new and neighboring nations. If the measure is new and without precedent, so is the situation of the parties to it. That the purposes of the meeting are somewhat indefinite, far from being an objection to it, is among the cogent reasons for its adoption. It is not the establishment of principles of intercourse with one, but with seven or eight nations at once. That before they have had the means of exchanging ideas and communicating with one another in common upon these topics they should have definitely settled and arranged them in concert is to require that the effect should precede the cause; it is to exact as a preliminary to the meeting that for the accomplishment of which the meeting itself is designed.

Among the inquiries which were thought entitled to consideration before the determination was taken to accept the invitation was that whether the measure might not have a tendency to change the policy, hitherto invariably pursued by the United States, of avoiding all entangling alliances and all unnecessary foreign connections.

Mindful of the advice given by the Father of our Country in his Farewell Address, that the great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connection as possible, and, faithfully adhering to the spirit of that admonition, I cannot overlook the reflection that the counsel of Washington in that instance, like all the counsels of wisdom, was founded upon the circumstances in which our country and the world around us were situated at the time when it was given; that the reasons assigned by him for his advice were that Europe had a set of primary interests which to us had none or a very remote relation; that hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which were essentially foreign to our concern, that our *detached* and *distant* situation invited and enabled us to pursue a different course; that by our union and rapid growth, with an efficient government, the period was not far distant when we might defy material injury from external annoyance, when we might take such an attitude as would cause our neutrality to be respected, and, with reference to belligerent nations, might choose peace or war, as our interests, guided by justice, should counsel.

Compare our situation and the circumstances of that time with those of the present day, and what, from the very words of Washington then, would be his counsels to his countrymen now? Europe has still her set of primary interests with which we have little or a remote relation. Our distant and detached situation with reference to Europe remains the same. But we were then the only independent nation of this hemisphere, and we were surrounded by European colonies, with the greater part of which we had no more intercourse than with the inhabitants of another planet. Those colonies have now been transformed into eight independent nations, extending to our very borders, seven of them republics like ourselves, with whom we have an immensely growing commercial, and *must* have and have already important political, connections, with reference to whom our situation is neither distant nor detached; whose political principles and systems of government, congenial with our own, must and will have an action and counteraction upon us and ours to which we cannot be indifferent if we would.

The rapidity of our growth, and the consequent increase of our strength, has more than realized the anticipations of this admirable political legacy. Thirty years have nearly elapsed since it was written, and in the interval our population, our wealth, our territorial extension, our

power—physical and moral—have nearly trebled. Reasoning upon this state of things from the sound and judicious principles of Washington, must we not say that the period which he predicted as then not far off has arrived, that *America* has a set of primary interests which have none or a remote relation to Europe; that the interference of Europe, therefore, in those concerns should be spontaneously withheld by her upon the same principles that we have never interfered with hers, and that if she should interfere, as she may, by measures which may have a great and dangerous recoil upon ourselves, we might be called in defence of our own altars and firesides to take an attitude which would cause our neutrality to be respected and choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, should counsel.

The acceptance of this invitation, therefore, far from conflicting with the counsel or the policy of Washington, is directly deducible from and conformable to it. Nor is it less conformable to the views of my immediate predecessors as declared in his annual message to Congress of Dec. 2, 1823, to which I have already adverted, and to an important passage of which I invite the attention of the House:

"The citizens of the United States," said he, "cherish sentiments the most friendly in favor of the liberty and happiness of their fellow-men on that [the European] side of the Atlantic. In the wars of the European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy so to do. It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparation for our defence. With the movements in this hemisphere we are of necessity more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defence of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations substituting between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interferred and shall not interfere; but with the governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purposes of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly dispositon towards the United States. In the war between those new governments and Spain we declared our neutrality at the time of their recognition, and to this we have adhered, and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur which in the judgment of the competent authorities of this government shall make a corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security."

To the question which may be asked, whether this meeting and the principles which may be adjusted and settled by it as rules of intercourse between the American nations may not give umbrage to the holy league of European powers or offence to Spain, it is deemed a sufficient answer that our attendance at Panama can give no *just cause* of umbrage or offence to either, and that the United States will stipulate nothing there which can give such cause. Here the right of inquiry into our purposes and measures must stop. The holy league of Europe itself was formed without inquiring of the United States whether it would or would not give umbrage to them. The fear of giving umbrage to the holy league of Europe was urged as a motive for denying to the American nations the acknowledgment of their independence. That it would be viewed by Spain as hostility to her was not only urged, but directly declared by herself. The Congress and administration of that day consulted their rights and duties, and not

their fears. Fully determined to give no needless displeasure to any foreign power, the United States can estimate the probability of their giving it only by the right which any foreign state could have to take it from their measures. Neither the representation of the United States at Panama nor any measure to which their assent may be yielded there will give to the holy league or any of its members, nor to Spain, the right to take offence; for the rest, the United States must still, as heretofore, take counsel from their duties rather than their fears.

Such are the objects in which it is expected that the plenipotentiaries of the United States, when commissioned to attend the meeting at the Isthmus, will take part, and such are the motives and purposes with which the invitation of the republics was accepted. It was, however, as the House will perceive from the correspondence, accepted only upon condition that the nomination of commissioners for the mission should receive the advice and consent of the Senate.

The concurrence of the House to the measure, by the appropriations necessary for carrying it into effect, is alike subject to its free determination and indispensable to the fulfilment of the intention.

That the congress at Panama will accomplish all, or even any, of the transcendent benefits to the human race which warmed the conception of its first proposer, it were, perhaps, indulging too sanguine a forecast of events to promise. It is in its nature a measure speculative and experimental. The blessing of Heaven may turn it to the account of human improvement; accidents unforeseen and mischances not to be anticipated may baffle all its high purposes and disappoint its fairest expectations. But the design is great, is benevolent, is humane.

It looks to the melioration of the condition of man. It is congenial with that spirit which prompted the declaration of our independence, which inspired the preamble of our first treaty with France, which dictated our first treaty with Prussia, and the instructions under which it was negotiated, which filled the hearts and fired the souls of the immortal founders of our Revolution.

With this unrestricted exposition of the motives by which I have been governed in this transaction, as well as of the objects to be discussed and of the ends, if possible, to be attained by our representation at the proposed congress, I submit the propriety of an appropriation to the candid consideration and enlightened patriotism of the legislature.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Jubilee of the Constitution.—The following is the address of Mr. Adams before the New York Historical Society, April 30, 1830:

Would it be an unlicensed trespass of the imagination to conceive that, on the night preceding the day of which you now commemorate the fiftieth anniversary —on the night preceding the 30th of April, 1789, when from the balcony of your city hall the Chancellor of the State of New York administered to George Washington the solemn oath faithfully to execute the office of President of the United States, and to the best of his ability to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States—that in the visions of the night the guardian angel of the Father of our Country had appeared before him, in the venerated form of his mother, and, to cheer and encourage him in the performance of the momentous and solemn duties that he was about to assume, had delivered to him a suit of celestial armor—a helmet, consisting of the principles of piety, of justice, of honor, of benevolence, with which from his earliest infancy he had hitherto walked through life, in the presence of all his brethren—a spear, studded with the self-evident truths of the Declaration of Independence—a sword, the same with which he had led the armies of his country through the war of freedom, to the summit of the triumphal arch of independence—a corslet and cuishes of long experience and habitual intercourse in peace and war with the world of mankind, his contemporaries of the human race, in all their stages of civilization—and, last of all, the Constitution of the United States, a shield, embossed by heavenly hands with the future history of his country.

Yes, gentlemen! on that shield, the Constitution of the United States, was sculptured (by forms unseen, and in char-

acters then invisible to mortal eye), the predestined and prophetic history of the one confederated people of the North American Union.

They have been the settlers of thirteen separate and distinct English colonies, along the margin of the shore of the North American continent; contiguously situated, but chartered by adventurers of characters variously diversified, including sectarians, religious and political, of all the classes which for the two preceding centuries had agitated and divided the people of the British islands, and with them were intermingled the descendants of Hollanders, Swedes, Germans, and French fugitives from the persecution of the revoker of the Edict of Nantes.

In the bosoms of this people, thus heterogeneously composed, there was burning, kindled at different furnaces, but all furnaces of affliction, one clear, steady flame of liberty. Bold and daring enterprise, stubborn endurance of privation, unflinching intrepidity in facing danger, and inflexible adherence to conscientious principle had steeled to energetic and unyielding hardihood the characters of the primitive settlers of all these colonies. Since that time two or three generations of men had passed away, but they have increased and multiplied with unexampled rapidity; and the land itself had been the recent theatre of a ferocious and bloody seven years' war between the two most powerful and most civilized nations of Europe, contending for the possession of this continent.

Of that strife the victorious combatant had been Britain. She had conquered the provinces of France. She had expelled her rival totally from the continent, over which, bounding herself by the Mississippi, she was thenceforth to hold divided empire only with Spain. She had acquired undisputed control over the Indian tribes, still tenanting the forests unexplored by the European man. She had established an uncontested monopoly of the commerce of all her colonies. But forgetting all the warnings of preceding ages —forgetting the lessons written in the blood of her own children, through centuries of departed time, she undertook to tax the people of the colonies without their consent.

Resistance, instantaneous, unconcerted, sympathetic, inflexible resistance, like an electric shock startled and roused the people of all the English colonies on this continent.

This was the first signal for the North American Union. The struggle was for chartered rights, for English liberties, for the cause of Algernon Sidney and John Hampden, for trial by jury, the *habeas corpus* and Magna Charta.

But the English lawyers had decided that Parliament was omnipotent; and Parliament, in their omnipotence, instead of trial by jury and the *habeas corpus*, enacted admiralty courts in England to try Americans for offences charged against them as committed in America; instead of the privileges of Magna Charta, nullified the charter itself of Massachusetts Bay, shut up the port of Boston, sent armies and navies to keep the peace and teach the colonies that John Hampden was a rebel and Algernon Sidney a traitor.

English liberties had failed them. From the omnipotence of Parliament the colonists appealed to the rights of man and the omnipotence of the god of battles. Union! Union! was the instinctive and simultaneous cry throughout the land. Their Congress, assembled at Philadelphia, once—twice—had petitioned the King, had remonstrated to Parliament, had addressed the people of Britain for the rights of Englishmen—in vain. Fleets and armies, the blood of Lexington, and the fires of Charlestown and Falmouth, had been the answer to petition, remonstrance, and address.

Independence was declared. The colonies were transformed into States. Their inhabitants were proclaimed to be one people, renouncing all allegiance to the British crown, all co-patriotism with the British nation, all claims to chartered rights as Englishmen. Thenceforth their charter was the Declaration of Independence. Their rights, the natural rights of mankind. Their government, such as should be instituted by themselves, under the solemn mutual pledges of perpetual union, founded on the self-evident truths proclaimed in the Declaration.

The Declaration of Independence was issued, in the excruciating agonies of a

civil war, and by that war independence was to be maintained. Six long years it raged with unabated fury, and the Union was yet no more than a mutual pledge of faith and a mutual participation of common sufferings and common dangers.

The omnipotence of the British Parliament was vanquished. The independence of the United States of America was not granted, but recognized. The nation had "assumed among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitled it"—but the one, united people had yet no government.

In the enthusiasm of their first spontaneous, unstipulated, unpremeditated union, they have flattered themselves that no general government would be required. As separate States they were all agreed that they should constitute and govern themselves. The revolution under which they were gasping for life, the war which was carrying desolation into all their dwellings, and mourning into every family, had been kindled by the abuse of power—the power of government. An invincible repugnance to the delegation of power had thus been generated by the very course of events which had rendered it necessary; and the more indispensable it became, the more awakened was the jealousy and the more intense was the distrust by which it was to be circumscribed.

They relaxed their union into a league of friendship between sovereign and independent States. They constituted a Congress, with powers co-extensive with the nation, but so hedged and hemmed in with restrictions that the limitation seemed to be the general rule and the grant the occasional exception. The Articles of Confederation, subjected to philosophical analysis, seem to be little more than an enumeration of the functions of a national government which the Congress constituted by the instrument was not authorized to perform. There was avowedly no executive power.

The nation fell into an atrophy. The Union languished to the point of death. A torpid numbness seized upon all its faculties. A chilling, cold indifference crept from its extremities to the centre. The system was about to dissolve in its own imbecility—impotence in negotiation abroad, domestic insurrection at home, were on the point of bearing to a dishonorable grave the proclamation of a government founded on the rights of man—when a convention of delegates from eleven of the thirteen States, with George Washington at their head, sent forth to the people an act to be made their own, speaking in their name and in the first person, thus: "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

This act was the complement to the Declaration of Independence, founded upon the same principles, carrying them out into practical execution, and forming with it one entire system of national government. The Declaration was a manifesto to the world of mankind, to justify the one, confederated people for the violent and voluntary severance of the ties of their allegiance, for the renunciation of their country, and for assuming a station themselves among the potentates of the world—a self-constituted sovereign, a self-constituted country.

In the history of the human race this had never been done before. Monarchs had been dethroned for tyranny, kingdoms converted into republics, and revolted provinces had assumed the attributes of sovereign power. In the history of England itself, within one century and a half before the day of the Declaration of Independence, one lawful king had been brought to the block, and another expelled, with all his posterity, from his kingdom, and a collateral dynasty had ascended his throne. But the former of these revolutions had, by the deliberate and final sentence of the nation itself, been pronounced a rebellion, and the rightful heir of the executed king had been restored to the crown. In the latter, at the first onset, the royal recreant had fled—he was held to have abdicated the crown, and it was placed upon the heads of his daughter and of her husband, the prime leader of the conspiracy against him. In these events there had been much controversy

upon the platform of English liberties—upon the customs of the ancient Britons, the laws of Alfred, the witenagemote of the Anglo-Saxons, and the Great Charter of Runnymede with all its numberless confirmations. But the actors of those times had never ascended to the first foundation of civil society among men, nor had any revolutionary system of government been rested upon them.

The motive for the Declaration of Independence was on its face avowed to be "a decent respect for the opinions of mankind"; its purpose, to declare the causes which impelled the people of the English colonies on the continent of North America to separate themselves from the political community of the British nation. They declare only the causes of their separation, but they announce at the same time their assumption of the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them among the powers of the earth.

Thus their first movement is to recognize and appeal to the laws of nature and to nature's God, for their right to assume the attributes of sovereign power as an independent nation.

The causes of their necessary separation, for they begin and end by declaring it necessary, alleged in the Declaration, are all founded on the same laws of nature and of nature's God; and hence, as preliminary to the enumeration of the causes of separation, they set forth as self-evident truths the rights of individual man, by the laws of nature and of nature's God, to life, to liberty, to the pursuit of happiness; that all men are created equal; that to secure the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. All this is by the laws of nature and of nature's God, and of course presupposes the existence of a God, the moral ruler of the universe, and a rule of right and wrong, of just and unjust, binding upon man, preceding all institutions of human society and of government. It avers, also, that governments are instituted to secure these rights of nature and of nature's God, and that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of those ends it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government—to throw off a government degenerating into despotism, and to provide new guards for their future security. They proceed then to say that such was then the situation of the colonies, and such the necessity which constrained them to alter their former systems of government.

Then follows the enumeration of the acts of tyranny by which the King, Parliament, and people of Great Britain had perverted the powers to the destruction of the ends of government over the colonies, and the consequent necessity constraining the colonies to the separation.

In conclusion, the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. The appeal to the Supreme Judge of the world, and the rule of right and wrong as paramount events to the power of independent States, are here again repeated in the very act of constituting a new sovereign community. It is not immaterial to remark that the signers of the Declaration, though qualifying themselves as the Representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, yet issue the Declaration in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, and that they declare, not each of the separate colonies, but the United Colonies, free and independent States. The whole people declared the colonies in their united condition, of right, free and independent States.

The dissolution of allegiance to the British crown, the severance of the colonies from the British empire, and their

actual existence as independent States, thus declared of right, were definitely established in fact, by war and peace. The independence of each separate State had never been declared of right. It never existed in fact. Upon the principles of the Declaration of Independence, the dissolution of the ties of allegiance, the assumption of sovereign power, and the institution of civil government are all acts of transcendent authority, which the people alone are competent to perform; and, accordingly, it is in the name and by the authority of the people that two of these acts—the dissolution of allegiance, with the severance from the British empire, and the declaration of the United Colonies, as free and independent States—were performed by that instrument.

But there still remained the last and crowning act, which the people of the Union alone were competent to perform—the institution of civil government for that compound nation, the United States of America.

At this day it cannot but strike us as extraordinary that it does not appear to have occurred to any one member of that assembly, which had laid down in terms so clear, so explicit, so unequivocal, the foundation of all just government, in the imprescriptible rights of man and the transcendent sovereignty of the people, and who in those principles had set forth their only personal vindication from the charges of rebellion against their King and of treason to their country, that their last crowning act was still to be performed upon the same principles—that is, the institution, by the people of the United States, of a civil government to guard and protect and defend them all. On the contrary, that same assembly which issued the Declaration of Independence, instead of continuing to act in the name and by the authority of the good people of the United States, had, immediately after the appointment of the committee to prepare the Declaration, appointed another committee, of one member from each colony, to prepare and digest the form of confederation to be entered into between the colonies.

That committee reported on the 12th of July, eight days after the Declaration of Independence had been issued, a draft of Articles of Confederation between the colonies. This draft was prepared by John Dickinson, then a delegate from Pennsylvania, who voted against the Declaration of Independence, and never signed it, having been superseded by a new election of delegates from the State eight days after this draught was reported.

There was thus no congeniality of principle between the Declaration of Independence and the Articles of Confederation. The foundation of the former were a superintending Providence, the rights of man and the constituent revolutionary power of the people; that of the latter was the sovereignty of organized power and the independence of the separate or dis-united States. The fabric of the Declaration and that of the Confederation were each consistent with its own foundation, but they could not form one consistent symmetrical edifice. They were the productions of different minds and of adverse passions—one, ascending for the foundation of human government to the laws of nature and of God, written upon the heart of man; the other, resting upon the basis of human institutions and prescriptive law and colonial charter. The corner-stone of the one was right, that of the other was power.

The work of the founders of our independence was thus but half done. Absorbed in that more than herculean task of maintaining that independence and its principles by one of the most cruel wars that ever glutted the furies with human woe, they marched undaunted and steadfast through that fiery ordeal, and, consistent in their principles to the end, concluded, as an acknowledged sovereignty of the United States, proclaimed by their people in 1776, a peace with that same monarch whose sovereignty over them they had abjured in obedience to the laws of nature and of nature's God.

But for these United States they had formed no Constitution. Instead of resorting to the source of all constituted power, they had wasted their time, their talents, and their persevering, untiring toils in erecting and roofing and buttressing a frail and temporary shed to shelter the nation from the storm, or rather a mere baseless scaffolding on which to

stand when they should raise the marble palace of the people, to stand the test of time.

Five years were consumed by Congress and the State legislatures in debating and altering and adjusting these Articles of Confederation, the first of which was:

"Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled."

Observe the departure from the language, and the consequent contrast of principles, with those of the Declaration of Independence.

"Each State retains its sovereignty," etc. Where did each State get the sovereignty which it retains? In the Declaration of Independence the delegates of the colonies in Congress assembled, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, declare, not each colony, but the United Colonies, in fact, and of right, not sovereign, but free and independent States. And why did they make this declaration in the name and by the authority of the one people of all the colonies? Because by the principles before laid down in the Declaration, the people, and the people alone, as the rightful source of all legitimate government, were competent to dissolve the bands of subjection of all the colonies to the nation of Great Britain, and to constitute them free and independent States. Now the people of the colonies, speaking by their delegates in Congress, had not declared each colony a sovereign, free, and independent State, nor had the people of each colony so declared the colony itself, nor could they so declare it, because each was already bound in union with all the rest—a union formed *de facto*, by the spontaneous revolutionary movement of the whole people, and organized by the meeting of the first Congress, in 1774, a year and ten months before the Declaration of Independence.

Where, then, did each State get the sovereignty, freedom, and independence which the Articles of Confederation declare it retains? Not from the whole people of the whole Union; not from the Declaration of Independence—not from the people of the State itself. It was assumed by agreement between the legislatures of the several States and their delegates in Congress, without authority from or consultation of the people at all.

In the Declaration of Independence the enacting and constituent party dispensing and delegating sovereign power is the whole people of the United Colonies. The recipient party, invested with power, is the United Colonies, declared United States.

In the Articles of Confederation this order of agency is averted. Each State is the constituent and enacting party, and the United States in Congress assembled the recipient of delegated power, and that power delegated with such a penurious and carking hand that it had more the aspect of a revocation of the Declaration of Independence than an instrument to carry it into effect.

None of these indispensably necessary powers were ever conferred by the State legislatures upon the Congress of the confederation; and well was it that they never were. The system itself was radically defective. Its incurable disease was an apostasy from the principles of the Declaration of Independence — a substitution of separate State sovereignties, in the place of the constituent sovereignty of the people as the basis of the confederate Union.

In the Congress of the confederation the master minds of James Madison and Alexander Hamilton were constantly engaged through the closing years of the Revolutionary War and those of peace which immediately succeeded. That of John Jay was associated with them shortly after the peace, in the capacity of Secretary to the Congress for Foreign Affairs. The incompetency of the Articles of Confederation for the management of the affairs of the Union at home and abroad was demonstrated to them by the painful and mortifying experience of every day. Washington, though in retirement, was brooding over the cruel injustice suffered by his associates in arms, the warriors of the Revolution; over the prostration of the public credit and the faith of the nation in the neglect to provide for the payment even of the interest upon the public debt; over the disappointed hopes of the friends of freedom; in the language of the address

J. Q. Adams

from Congress to the States of the 18th of April, 1783, "The pride and boast of America, that the rights for which she contended were the rights of human nature."

At his residence in Mount Vernon, in March, 1785, the first idea was started of a revisal of the Articles of Confederation by an organization of means differing from that of a compact between the State legislatures and their own delegates in Congress. A convention of delegates from the State legislatures, independent of the Congress itself, was the expedient which presented itself for effecting the purpose, and an augmentation of the powers of Congress for the regulation of commerce as the object for which this assembly was to be convened. In January, 1786, the proposal was made and adopted in the legislature of Virginia and communicated to the other State legislatures.

The convention was held at Annapolis in September of that year. It was attended by delegates from only five of the central States, who, on comparing their restricted powers with the glaring and universally acknowledged defects of the confederation, reported only a recommendation for the assemblage of another convention of delegates to meet at Philadelphia in May, 1787, from all the States and with enlarged powers.

The Constitution of the United States was the work of this convention. But in its construction the convention immediately perceived that they must retrace their steps, and fall back from a league of friendship between sovereign States to the constituent sovereignty of the people; from power to right—from the irresponsible despotism of State sovereignty to the self-evident truths of the Declaration of Independence. In that instrument the right to institute and to alter governments among men was ascribed exclusively to the people; the ends of government were declared to be to secure the natural rights of man; and that when the government degenerates from the promotion to the destruction of that end, the right and the duty accrued to the people to dissolve this degenerate government and to institute another. The signers of the Declaration further averred that the one people of the United Colonies were then precisely in that situation, with a government degenerated into tyranny, and called upon by the laws of nature and of nature's God to dissolve that government and institute another. Then, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, they pronounced the dissolution of their allegiance to the King and their eternal separation from the nation of Great Britain, and declared the United Colonies independent States. And here, as the representatives of the one people, they had stopped. They did not require the confirmation of this act, for the power to make the declaration had already been conferred upon them by the people; delegating the power, indeed, separately in the separate colonies, not by colonial authority, but by the spontaneous revolutionary movement of the people in them all.

From the day of that declaration the constituent power of the people had never been called into action. A confederacy had been substituted in the place of a government, and State sovereignty had usurped the constituent sovereignty of the people.

The convention assembled at Philadelphia had themselves no direct authority from the people. Their authority was all derived from the State legislatures. But they had the Articles of Confederation before them, and they saw and felt the wretched condition into which they had brought the whole people, and that the Union itself was in the agonies of death. They soon perceived that the indispensably needed powers were such as no State government, no combination of them, was by the principles of the Declaration of Independence competent to bestow. They could emanate only from the people. A highly respectable portion of the assembly, still clinging to the confederacy of States, proposed as a substitute for the Constitution a mere revival of the Articles of Confederation, with a grant of additional powers to the Congress. Their plan was respectfully and thoroughly discussed, but the want of a government and of the sanction of the people to the delegation of powers happily prevailed. A Constitution for the people, with the distribution of legislative, executive, and judicial powers, was prepared. It announced itself

as the work of the people themselves; and as this was unquestionably a power assumed by the convention, not delegated to them by the people, they religiously confined it to a simple power to propose, and carefully provided that it should be no more than a proposal until sanctioned by the confederation Congress, by the State legislatures, and by the people of the several States, in conventions specially assembled, by authority of their legislatures, for the single purpose of examining and passing upon it.

And thus was consummated the work commenced by the Declaration of Independence, a work in which the people of the North American Union, acting under the deepest sense of responsibility to the Supreme Ruler of the universe, had achieved the most transcendent act of power that social man in his mortal condition can perform, even that of dissolving the ties of allegiance by which he is bound to his country, of renouncing that country itself, of demolishing its government, of instituting another government, and of making for himself another country in its stead.

The Revolution itself was a work of thirteen years, and had never been completed until that day. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States are parts of one consistent whole, founded upon one and the same theory of government, then new, not as a theory, for it had been working itself into the mind of man for many ages, and been especially expounded in the writings of Locke, but had never before been adopted by a great nation in practice.

There are yet, even at this day, many speculative objections to this theory. Even in our own country there are still philosophers who deny the principles asserted in the Declaration as self-evident truths, who deny the natural equality and inalienable rights of man, who deny that the people are the only legitimate source of power, who deny that all just powers of government are derived from the consent of the governed. Neither your time nor, perhaps, the cheerful nature of this occasion permit me here to enter upon the examination of this anti-revolutionary theory, which arrays State sovereignty against the constituent sovereignty of the people, and distorts the Constitution of the United States into a league of friendship between confederate corporations. I speak to matters of fact. There is the Declaration of Independence, and there is the Constitution of the United States—let them speak for themselves. The grossly immoral and dishonest doctrine of despotic State sovereignty, the exclusive judge of its own obligations, and responsible to no power on earth or in heaven for the violation of them, is not there. The Declaration says, "It is not in me." The Constitution says, "It is not in me."

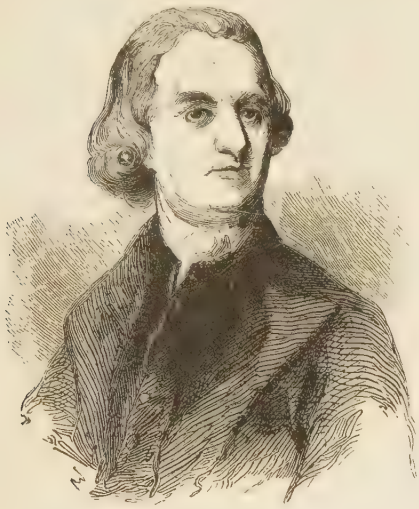
Adams, JOHN QUINCY (son of Charles F.); born in Boston, Mass., Sept. 22, 1833; graduated at Harvard in 1853; was the unsuccessful candidate for the governorship in 1868–69–70, and for the United States Vice-Presidency on the ticket with Charles O'Conor in 1872. He died in Quincy, Mass., Aug. 14, 1894.

Adams, JULIUS WALKER, engineer; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 18, 1812. He was the pioneer engineer of the East River Bridge. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Dec. 13, 1899.

Adams, ROBERT, JR., legislator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 26, 1849; was graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1869. He entered Congress in 1893 as representative from the 2d Pennsylvania District, and in 1898 was acting chairman of the committee on foreign affairs which reported the Cuban resolutions and the declaration of war against Spain.

Adams, SAMUEL, patriot; born in Boston, Sept. 27, 1722; was graduated at Harvard College in 1742, and was honored with the degree of LL.D. by it in 1792. The tendency of his mind was shown when, at the age of twenty-one, receiving the degree of A.M., he proposed, and took the affirmative on, the question "Whether it be lawful to resist the supreme magistrate if the commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved?" He published a pamphlet at about the same time entitled *Englishmen's Rights.* He became an unsuccessful merchant, but a successful writer; and gained great popularity by his political essays against the administration of Governor Shirley. Stern in morals, a born republican, and with courage equal to his convictions, Samuel

Adams was a natural leader of the opposers of the Stamp Act and kindred measures of Parliament, and from that period (1765) until the independence of the colonies was achieved he was a foremost leader of the patriot host. He suggested



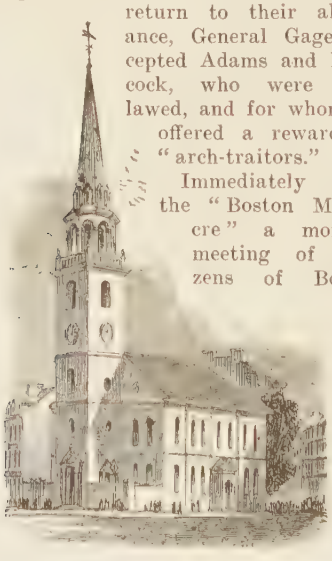
SAMUEL ADAMS.

the Stamp Act Congress, and was a continual object of dread and hatred to the colonial governors. He proposed the first Committee of Correspondence in Massachusetts in 1772; and, when General Gage besought him to make his peace with the King, he replied, "I trust I have made my peace with the King of kings. No personal considerations shall induce me to abandon the righteous cause of my country."

In 1774 he was the chief in maturing the plan for a Continental Congress; was a member of it; and served in that body most efficiently from that time until 1781. As early as 1769 Mr. Adams advocated the independence of the colonies, and was one of the warmest supporters of it in the Congress. When debating on the Declaration of Independence, Adams said: "I should advise persisting in our struggle for liberty though it were revealed from heaven that 999 were to perish, and one of 1,000 were to survive and retain his liberty. One such freeman must possess more virtue, and enjoy more happiness, than 1,000 slaves; and let him propagate his like, and transmit to them what he has so nobly preserved." Mr. Adams assisted in drafting the State constitution of Massachusetts (1779), was president of his State Senate (1781), member of his State Convention that ratified the national Constitution, lieutenant-governor (1789–94), and governor (1794–97). He sympathized with the French Revolutionists, and was a Jeffersonian Democrat in politics in his latter days. The purity of his life and his inflexible integrity were attested by friends and foes. Hutchinson, in a letter to his government, said he was of "such an obstinate and inflexible disposition that no gift nor office would ever conciliate him." His piety was sincere, and he was a thoroughbred Puritan. Without fortune, without a profession, he depended on moderate salaries and emoluments of office; and for almost fifty years a daily maintenance, frugal in the extreme, was eked out by the industry and prudence of his second wife, whom he married in 1757. He died in Boston, Oct. 2, 1803.

Samuel Adams and John Hancock were regarded as arch-rebels by General Gage, and he resolved to arrest them and send them to England to be tried for treason. A capital part of his scheme, in sending out the expedition to Lexington and Concord (April 18–19, 1775), was the seizure of these patriots, who, members of the Provincial Congress, had tarried at Lexington on being informed of Gage's intention to arrest them on their return to Boston. They were at the house of Rev. Jonas Clarke, and Gage thought to surprise and capture them at midnight. The vigilant Warren, learning the secret of the expedition, sent Paul Revere to warn the patriots of their danger. Revere waited at Charlestown for a signal-light from the sexton of the North Church, to warn him of the forward movement of the troops. It was given, and on Deacon Larkin's swift horse Revere sped to Lexington. At a little past midnight he rode up to Clarke's house, which he found guarded by Sergeant Monroe and his men. In hurried words he asked for Hancock. "The family have retired," said the sergeant, "and I am directed not to allow them to be disturbed by any noise." "Noise!" exclaimed Revere; "you'll have noise enough

before long; the regulars are coming out!" He was then allowed to knock at the door. Mr. Clarke appeared at a window, when Revere said, "I wish to see Mr. Hancock." "I do not like to admit strangers into my house so late at night," answered Mr. Clarke. Hancock, who was not asleep, recognized Revere's voice, and called out, "Come in, Revere, we are not afraid of *you*." The warning was given; the whole household was soon astir, and the two patriots awaited the coming of the enemy. When they approached, the "arch-rebels" were persuaded to retire to a more secure retreat, followed by Dorothy Quincy, to whom Hancock was affianced (and whom he married in September following), who was on a visit at Mr. Clarke's. When Adams, from a wooded hill near Clarke's house, saw the beginning of the skirmish at Lexington, he exclaimed, with prophetic prescience, "What a glorious morning for America is this!" In a proclamation (June 12) in which he denounced those in arms and their abettors to be "rebels and parricides of the Constitution," and offered a free pardon to all who should forthwith return to their allegiance, General Gage excepted Adams and Hancock, who were outlawed, and for whom he offered a reward as "arch-traitors."



OLD SOUTH MEETING-HOUSE.

Immediately after the "Boston Massacre" a monster meeting of citizens of Boston was held in the Old South Meeting-house, and appointed a committee, consisting of Samuel Adams, John Hancock, William Molineaux, William Phillips, Joseph Warren, Joshua Henshaw, and Samuel Pemberton, to call on Lieutenant-Governor Hutchinson and demand the removal of the British troops from Boston, by presenting resolutions to that effect adopted by the meeting. Adams submitted the resolutions. The lieutenant-governor and Colonel Dalrymple were disposed to temporize. Hutchinson said he had no power to remove all the troops. Adams proved that he had, by the terms of the charter. Still the crown officers hesitated. Adams resolved that there should be no more trifling with the will of the people. Stretching forth his hand towards Hutchinson, and in a voice not loud but clear, he said: "If you have power to remove *one* regiment, you have power to remove *both*. It is at your peril if you do not. The meeting is composed of 3,000 people. They are become very impatient. A thousand men are already arrived from the neighborhood, and the country is in general motion. Night is approaching; an immediate answer is expected." This was the voice of the province—of the continent. Hutchinson grew pale; his knees trembled; and Adams afterwards said, "I enjoyed the sight." After conferring together in a whisper, Hutchinson and Dalrymple promised to send all the troops to Castle William, in Boston Harbor.

Mr. Adams was early marked as an inflexible patriot and most earnest promoter of the cause of freedom. When Governor Gage sought to bribe him to desist from his opposition to the acts of Parliament concerning taxation in America, he sent Colonel Fenton on this errand. The latter said to Adams that he was authorized by Gage to assure him that he (the governor) had been empowered to confer upon him such benefits as would be satisfactory, upon the condition that he would engage to cease his opposition to the measures of government. He also observed that it was the advice of Governor Gage to him not to incur the further displeasure of his Majesty; that his conduct had been such as made him liable to the penalties of the Act of Henry VIII., by which persons could be sent to England for trial for treason or misprision of treason, at the discretion of the governor of a province; but by changing his political course he would

not only receive great personal advantages, but would thereby make his peace with his King. Adams listened attentively, and at the conclusion of the colonel's remarks he asked him if he would deliver a reply exactly as it should be given. He assented, when Adams, rising from his chair and assuming a determined manner, said, after repeating the historical words already quoted, "No personal consideration shall induce me to abandon the righteous cause of my country. Tell Governor Gage it is the advice of Samuel Adams to him no longer to insult the feelings of an exasperated people."

Protest against Taxation.—On May 24, 1764, Samuel Adams addressed the following protest to Royal Tyler, James Otis, Thomas Cushing, and Oxenbridge Thacher:

Gentlemen,—Your being chosen by the freeholders and inhabitants of the town of Boston to represent them in the General Assembly the ensuing year affords you the strongest testimony of that confidence which they place in your integrity and capacity. By this choice they have delegated to you the power of acting in their public concerns in general as your own prudence shall direct you, always reserving to themselves the constitutional right of expressing their mind and giving you such instructions upon particular matters as they at any time shall judge proper.

We therefore, your constituents, take this opportunity to declare our just expectations from you, that you will constantly use your power and influence in maintaining the valuable rights and privileges of the province, of which this town is so great a part, as well those rights which are derived to us by the royal charter as those which, being prior to and independent of it, we hold essentially as free-born subjects of Great Britain.

That you will endeavor, as far as you shall be able, to preserve that independence in the House of Representatives which characterizes a free people, and the want of which may in a great measure prevent the happy efforts of a free government, cultivating as you shall have opportunity that harmony and union there which is ever desirable to good men, which is founded on principles of virtue and public spirit, and guarding against any undue weight which may tend to disadjust that critical balance upon which our Constitution and the blessings of it do depend. And for this purpose we particularly recommend it to you to use your endeavors to have a law passed whereby the seats of such gentlemen as shall accept of posts of profit from the crown or the governor, while they are members of the House, shall be vacated agreeably to an act of the British Parliament, till their constituents shall have the opportunity of re-electing them, if they please, or of returning others in their room.

Being members of the legislative body, you will have a special regard to the morals of this people, which are the basis of public happiness, and endeavor to have such laws made, if any are still wanting, as shall be best adapted to secure them; and we particularly desire you carefully to look into the laws of excise, that if the virtue of the people is endangered by the multiplicity of oaths therein enjoined, or their trade and business is unreasonably impeded or embarrassed thereby, the grievance may be redressed.

As the preservation of morals, as well as of property and right, so much depends upon the impartial distribution of justice, agreeable to good and wholesome law; and as the judges of the land do depend upon the free grants of the General Assembly for support, it is incumbent upon you at all times to give your voice for their honorable maintenance, so long as they, having in their minds an indifference to all other affairs, shall devote themselves wholly to the duties of their own department and the further study of the law, by which their customs, precedents, proceedings, and determinations are adjusted and limited.

You will remember that this province hath been at a very great expense in carrying on the war, and that it still lies under a very grievous burden of debt; you will therefore use your utmost endeavor to promote public frugality as one means to lessen the public debt.

You will join in any proposals which may be made for the better cultivating the lands and improving the husbandry of the province; and as you represent a town which lives by its trade, we expect

in a very particular manner, though you make it the object of your attention to support our commerce in all its just rights, to vindicate it from all unreasonable impositions and promote its prosperity. Our trade has for a long time labored under great dicouragements, and it is with the deepest concern that we see such further difficulties coming upon it as will reduce it to the low ebb, if not totally obstruct and ruin it. We cannot help expressing our surprise that when so early notice was given by the agent of the intentions of the ministry to burden us with new taxes, so little regard was had to this most interesting matter that the Court was not even called together to consult about it till the latter end of the year; the consequence of which was that instructions could not be sent to the agent, though solicited by him, till the evil had gone beyond an easy remedy.

There is no room for further delay; we therefore expect that you will use your earliest endeavors in the General Assembly that such methods may be taken as will effectually prevent these proceedings against us. By a proper representation we apprehend it may easily be made to appear that such severities will prove detrimental to Great Britain itself; upon which account we have reason to hope that an application, even for a repeal of the act, should it be already passed, will be successful. It is the trade of the colonies that renders them beneficial to the mother country; our trade, as it is now and always has been conducted, centres in Great Britain, and, in return for her manufactures, affords her more ready cash beyond any comparison than can possibly be expected by the most sanguinary promoter of these extraordinary methods. We are, in short, ultimately yielding large supplies to the revenues of the mother country, while we are laboring for a very moderate subsistence for ourselves. But if our trade is to be curtailed in its most profitable branches, and burdens beyond all possible bearing laid upon that which is suffered to remain, we shall be so far from being able to take off the manufactures of Great Britain, though it will be scarce possible for us to earn our bread.

But what still heightens our apprehensions is that these unexpected proceedings may be preparatory to new taxations upon us; for if our trade may be taxed, why not our lands? Why not the produce of our lands and everything we possess or make use of? This we apprehend annihilates our charter right to govern and tax ourselves. It strikes at our British privileges, which, as we have never forfeited them, we hold in common with our fellow-subjects who are natives of Britain. If taxes are laid upon us in any shape without our having a legal representation where they are laid, are we not reduced from the character of free subjects to the miserable state of tributary slaves?

We therefore earnestly recommend it to you to use your utmost endeavors to obtain in the General Assembly all necessary instruction and advice to our agent at this critical juncture; that while he is setting forth the unshaken loyalty of this province and this town—its unrivalled exertion in supporting his Majesty's government and rights in this part of his dominions—its acknowledged dependence upon and subordination to Great Britain, and the ready submission of its merchants to all just and necessary regulations of trade, he may be able in the most humble and pressing manner to remonstrate for us all those rights and privileges which justly belong to us either by charter or birth.

As his Majesty's other Northern American colonies are embarked with us in this most important bottom, we further desire you to use your endeavors that their weight may be added to that of this province, that by the united application of all who are aggrieved, all may happily obtain redress.

Rights of the Colonists.—On Nov. 20, 1772, he made the following report:

AS MEN.

Among the natural rights of the colonists are these: First, a right to life. Second, to liberty. Thirdly, to property; together with the right to support and defend them in the best manner they can. These are evident branches of, rather than deductions from, the duty of self-preservation, commonly called the first law of nature.

All men have a right to remain in a state of nature as long as they please, and

in case of intolerable oppression, civil or religious, to leave the society they belong to and enter into another.

When men enter into society it is by voluntary consent, and they have a right to demand and insist upon the performance of such conditions and previous limitations as form an equitable original compact.

Every natural right not expressly given up, or from the nature of a social compact necessarily ceded, remains.

All positive and civil laws should conform, as far as possible, to the law of natural reason and equity.

As neither reason requires nor religion permits the contrary, every man living in or out of a state of civil society has a right peaceably and quietly to worship God according to the dictates of his conscience.

"Just and true liberty, equal and impartial liberty," in matters spiritual and temporal is a thing that all men are clearly entitled to by the eternal and immutable laws of God and nature, as well as by the laws of nations and all well-grounded and municipal laws, which must have their foundation in the former.

In regard to religion, mutual toleration in the different professions thereof is what all good and candid minds in all ages have ever practised, and both by precept and example inculcated on mankind. It is now generally agreed among Christians that this spirit of toleration, in the fullest extent consistent with the being of civil society, is the chief characteristical mark of the true Church. In so much that Mr. Locke has asserted and proved, beyond the possibility of contradiction on any solid ground, that such toleration ought to be extended to all whose doctrines are not subversive of society. The only sects which he thinks ought to be, and which by all wise laws are, excluded from such toleration are those who teach doctrines subversive of the civil government under which they live. The Roman Catholics, or Papists, are excluded by reason of such doctrines as these: That princes excommunicated may be deposed, and those that they call heretics may be destroyed without mercy; besides their recognizing the Pope in so absolute a manner, in subversion on government, by introducing, as far as possible into the states under whose protection they enjoy life, liberty, and property, that solecism in politics, *imperium in imperio*, leading directly to the worst anarchy and confusion, civil discord, war, and bloodshed.

The natural liberty of man by entering into society is abridged or restrained, so far only as is necessary for the great end of society—the best good of the whole.

In the state of nature every man is, under God, judge and sole judge of his own rights and of the injuries done him. By entering into society he agrees to an arbiter or indifferent judge between him and his neighbors; but he no more renounces his original right, thereby taking a cause out of the ordinary course of law, and leaving the decision to referees or indifferent arbitrators. In the last case, he must pay the referee for time and trouble. He should also be willing to pay his just quota for the support of the government, the law, and the Constitution, the end of which is to furnish indifferent and impartial judges in all cases that may happen, whether civil, ecclesiastical, marine, or military.

The natural liberty of man is to be free from any superior power on earth, and not to be under the will or legislative authority of man, but only to have the law of nature for his rule.

In the state of nature men may, as the patriarchs did, employ hired servants for the defence of their lives, liberties, and property, and they shall pay them reasonable wages. Government was instituted for the purpose of common defence, and those who hold the reins of government have an equitable, natural right to an honorable support from the same principle that "the laborer is worthy of his hire." But then the same community which they serve ought to be the assessors of their pay. Governors have a right to seek and take what they please; by this, instead of being content with the station assigned them, that of honorable servants of the society, they would soon become absolute masters, despots, and tyrants. Hence, as a private man has a right to say what wages he will give in his private affairs, so has a community to determine what they will give and grant of their substance for the administration of public affairs,

And in both cases more are ready to offer their service at the proposed and stipulated price than are able and willing to perform their duty.

In short, it is the greatest absurdity to suppose it in the power of one, or of any number of men, at the entering into society to renounce their essential natural rights, or the means of preserving those rights, when the grand end of civil government, from the very nature of its institution, is for the support, protection, and defence of those very rights; the principal of which, as is before observed, are life, liberty, and property. If men, through fear, fraud, or mistake, should in terms renounce or give up any essential natural right, the eternal law of reason and the grand end of society would absolutely vacate such renunciation. The right of freedom being the gift of God Almighty, it is not in the power of man to alienate this gift and voluntarily become a slave.

AS CHRISTIANS.

These may be best understood by reading and carefully studying the institutes of the great Law-giver and head of the Christian Church, which are to be found clearly written and promulgated in the New Testament.

By an act of the British Parliament commonly called the Toleration Act, every subject in England, except Papists, etc., were restored to, and re-established in, his natural right to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience. And by the charter of this province it is granted, ordained, and established (that is, declared as an original right) that there shall be liberty of conscience allowed in the worship of God to all Christians, except Papists, inhabiting, or which shall inhabit or be resident within, such province or territory. Magna Charta itself is in substance but a constrained declaration or proclamation and promulgation in the name of King, Lords, and Commons, of the sense the latter had their original, inherent, indefeasible, natural rights, as also those of free citizens equally perdurable with the other. That great author, that great jurist, and even that court writer, Mr. Justice Blackstone, holds that this recognition was justly obtained of King John, sword in hand. And peradventure it must be one day, sword in hand, again rescued and preserved from total destruction and oblivion.

AS SUBJECTS.

A commonwealth or state is a body politic, or civil society of men united together to promote their mutual safety and prosperity by means of their union.

The absolute right of Englishmen and all freemen, in or out of civil society, are principally personal security, personal liberty, and private property.

All persons born in the British American Colonies are by the laws of God and nature, and by the common law of England, exclusive of all charters from the Crown, well entitled, and by acts of the British Parliament are declared to be entitled, to all the natural, essential, inherent, and inseparable rights, liberties, and privileges of subjects born in Great Britain or within the realm. Among these rights are the following, which no man, or body of men, consistently with their own rights as men and citizens, or members of society, can for themselves give up or take away from others:

First. The first fundamental positive law of all commonwealths or states is the establishing the legislative power. As the first fundamental natural law, also, which is to govern even the legislative power itself is the preservation of the society.

Secondly. The legislative has no right to absolute arbitrary power over the lives and fortunes of the people; nor can mortals assume a prerogative not only too high for men, but for angels, and therefore reserved for the Deity alone.

The legislative cannot justly assume to itself a power to rule by extempore arbitrary decrees; but it is bound to see that justice is dispensed, and that the rights of the subjects be decided by promulgated standing, and known laws, and authorized independent judges; that is, independent, as far as possible, of prince and people. There should be one rule of justice for rich and poor, for the favorite at court, and the countryman at the plough.

Thirdly. The supreme power cannot justly take from any man any part of his property without his consent in person or by his representative.

These are some of the first principles of natural law and justice, and the great

barriers of all free states, and of the British constitution in particular. It is utterly irreconcilable to these principles, and to any other fundamental maxims of the common law, common-sense, and reason, that a British House of Commons should have a right at pleasure to give and grant the property of the colonists. (That the colonists are well entitled to all the essential rights, liberties, and privileges of men and freemen born in Britain is manifest not only from the colony charters in general, but acts of the British Parliament.) The statute of the 13th of Geo. II., c. 7, naturalizes every foreigner after seven years' residence. The words of the Massachusetts charter are these: "And further, our will and pleasure is, and we do hereby, for us, our heirs and successors, grant, establish, and ordain that all and every of the subjects of us, our heirs and successors, which shall go to and inhabit within our said Province or Territory, and every of their children which shall happen to be born there or on the seas in going thither or returning from thence, shall have and enjoy all liberties and immunities of free and natural subjects within any of the dominions of us, our heirs and successors, to all intents, constructions, and purposes whatsoever, as if they and every one of them were born within this, our realm of England."

Now what liberty can there be where property is taken away without consent? Can it be said with any color of truth and justice that this continent of 3,000 miles in length, and of a breadth as yet unexplored, in which, however, it is supposed there are 5,000,000 of people, has the least voice, vote, or influence in the British Parliament? Have they altogether any more weight or power to return a single member to that House of Commons who have not inadvertently, but deliberately, assumed a power to dispose of their lives, liberties, and properties, than to choose an emperor of China? Had the colonists a right to return members to the British Parliament, it would only be hurtful, as, from their local situation and circumstances it is impossible they should ever be truly and properly represented there. The inhabitants of this country, in all probability, in a few years, will be more numerous than those of Great Britain and Ireland together; yet it is absurdly expected by the promoters of the present measure that these, with their posterity to all generations, should be easy while their property shall be disposed of by a House of Commons at 3,000 miles distant from them, and who cannot be supposed to have the least care or concern for their real interest, but must be in effect bribed against it, as every burden they lay on the colonists is so much saved or gained to themselves. Hitherto many of the colonists have been free from quit rents; but if the breath of a British House of Commons can originate an act for taking away all our money, our lands will go next, or be subject to rack rents from haughty and relentless landlords, who will ride at ease while we are trodden in the dirt. The colonists have been branded with the odious names of traitors and rebels only for complaining of their grievances. How long such treatment will or ought to be borne is submitted.

Addams, JANE, social reformer; born in Cedarville, Ill., Sept. 6, 1860; was graduated at Rockford College in 1881, and, after spending some time in study in Europe, established the Social Settlement of Hull House in Chicago, of which she became head resident. She is widely esteemed for her writings and lectures on Social Settlement work.

Addicks, JOHN EDWARD, capitalist; born in Philadelphia, Nov. 21, 1841. Interested in gas companies. He was a candidate for United States Senator from Delaware for several years, but failed of election. His adherents prevented the election of any one, and as a consequence Delaware was unrepresented in the United States Senate for several years.

Adee, ALVEY AUGUSTUS, diplomatist; born in Astoria, N. Y., Nov. 27, 1842; was educated privately. On Sept. 9, 1870, he was appointed secretary of the American legation in Madrid, where he also served at different times as *chargé d'affaires;* July 9, 1877, was transferred to the Department of State in Washington, D. C.; June 11, 1878, became chief of the Diplomatic Bureau; July 18, 1882, third assistant Secretary of State; and Aug. 3, 1886, second assistant Secretary of State. He was present when the peace protocols were

signed between the United States and Spain, in Washington.

Adet, Pierre Augustus, French diplomatist; born in Nevers in 1763. He was ambassador to the United States in 1795–97. Here he interfered too much in local politics, and became unpopular with the government party. He issued an inflammatory address to the American people, in which he accused the administration of Washington with violations of the friendship which once existed between the United States and France. On Nov. 5, 1796, he issued the famous "cockade" proclamation, or order, calling upon all Frenchmen in the United States, in the name of the French Directory, to mount and wear the tricolored cockade, "the symbol of a liberty the fruit of eight years' toil and five years' victories." Adet declared in his proclamation that any Frenchman who might hesitate to give this indication of adherence to the republic should not be allowed the aid of the French consular chanceries or the national protection. The tricolored cockade was at once mounted, not only by the French residents, but by many American citizens who wished to signify in this marked manner their attachment to the French Republic. This "cockade proclamation," as the Federalists called it in derision, was the origin of the practice, for several years, of wearing a cockade as a badge of party distinction.

Ten days after the issuance of this proclamation he sent a note simultaneously to the State Department and to the *Aurora*—the opposition newspaper—demanding, "in the name of the faith of treaties and of American honor, the execution of that contract [treaty of 1778] which assured to the United States their existence, and which France regarded as a pledge of the most sacred union between two people, the freest upon earth." He announced, at the same time, "the resolution of a government terrible to its enemies, but generous to its allies." With grandiloquent sentences he portrayed the disappointment of the French nation in not finding a warm friend in the American government. "So far from offering the French the succor which friendship might have given," he said, "without compromitting itself, the American government, in this respect, violated the obligations of treaties." This was followed by a summary of these alleged violations, including the circular of 1793, restraining the fitting-out of privateers in American waters; the law of 1794, prohibiting hostile enterprises or preparations against nations with whom the United States were at peace; the cognizance of these matters taken by the American courts of law; and the admission of armed British vessels into American waters. He complained of the "British treaty" as inimical to the interests of France. This paper, published in the *Aurora*, was intended more for the American people than for the American government. While in the United States he was a busy partisan of the Republicans. In 1796 he presented to Congress, in behalf of the French nation, the tricolored flag of France; and just before he left, in 1797, he sent to the Secretary of State the famous note in which the Directory, contrary to the spirit of the treaty of 1778, declared that the flag of the republic would treat all neutral flags as they permitted themselves to be treated by the English. Soon afterwards Adet suspended his diplomatic functions and returned to France, where he died in 1832.

Adirondack Park, a tract in the Adirondack Mountain region covering Hamilton county and parts of Essex, Franklin, Herkimer, and St. Lawrence counties; containing numerous mountains, peaks, lakes, and woodlands. It was set apart by the State of New York in 1892 for the protection of the watershed of the Hudson and other rivers, for the practical study of forestry, and for public recreation. The tract has an area of 4,387 square miles. The study of forestry is here carried on under the direction of the newly established State School of Forestry, a department of Cornell University (*q. v.*).

Adler, Felix, educator; born in Alzey, Germany, Aug. 13, 1851; was graduated at Columbia University in 1870 and then studied in Germany. In 1874–76 he was Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Literature at Cornell University; and in 1876 he founded the New York Society of Ethical Culture, before which he has since lectured on Sundays. On May 5, 1901, at its twenty-fifth anniversary, in recognition

of Dr. Adler's services, the society presented him with $10,000 as a nucleus of a larger fund the income of which is to be employed in developing the natural gifts of worthy young men and women. Dr. Adler is a member of the editorial board of the *International Journal of Ethics.* His publications include *Creed and Deed; The Moral Instruction of Children,* etc.

Administrations. See PRESIDENTIAL ADMINISTRATIONS; CABINET, PRESIDENT'S; also the titles of the several Presidents.

Admiral, several times the title of the highest rank in the United States naval service. Prior to the Civil War the highest rank was that of commodore. In 1862 Congress established the rank of rear-admiral; in 1864 that of vice-admiral; and in 1866 that of admiral, in each case the office being bestowed on David G. Farragut. On the death of David D. Porter (1891), who by law had succeeded to the titles of vice-admiral and admiral, both these grades were abolished, and the grade of rear-admiral remained the highest till 1899, when that of admiral was again created by Congress and conferred on George Dewey. Further legislation by Congress in that year increased the number of rear-admirals from six, to which it had been reduced in 1882, to eighteen, and divided these officers into two classes of nine each, the first nine corresponding in rank to major-generals in the army, and the second to brigadier-generals. The same act abolished the grade of commodore, and advanced the holders of that grade to rear-admirals. In 1902 the number of rear-admirals was 22; in 1903, 24.

Admiralty Courts. The governor of each colony was vice-admiral, with the right of deciding maritime cases personally, or by a judge appointed by him. By the Constitution this jurisdiction is now vested in the federal courts, with original jurisdiction in the district courts.

Adventists, also known as MILLERITES, a sect in the United States founded by William Miller, who believed that the second coming of Christ would occur in October, 1843. As the expected event did not occur on the first nor succeeding days set for it, the number of believers decreased very largely. The Adventists of to-day still look for the coming of Christ, but do not fix a definite time for it. In 1900 the Adventists were divided into six bodies: Evangelical, Advent Christians, Seventh-Day, Church of God, Life and Advent Union, and Churches of God in Jesus Christ, and together reported 1,491 ministers, 2,267 churches, and 89,482 communicants. See MILLER, WILLIAM.

African Methodist Episcopal Church, a religious sect established in Philadelphia in 1816, by colored members of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The first bishop chosen by the convention that founded the Church was the Rev. Richard Allen. In 1794, under his direction, the first church for colored Methodists in the United States was built in Philadelphia. The government and doctrine of the Church is substantially the same as that of the body from which it withdrew. Its territory is divided into two annual conferences, and it has a general conference which meets once every four years. In 1900 it reported as follows: Ministers, 5,659; churches, 5,775; and members, 673,504.

African Methodist Episcopal Church, ZION, a religious sect, founded in New York City in 1796. This organization sprang from a desire of colored members of the Methodist Episcopal Church to have a separate spiritual fellowship that they might be more helpful to each other. The first annual conference, however, was not held until 1821. James Varich was elected bishop in the following year. Until 1880 bishops held office for four years only, but in that year an act was passed making the bishopric a life office. The territory of this Church is divided into seven districts, over each of which there is a bishop. In 1900 it reported as follows: Ministers, 3,155; churches, 2,906; and members, 536,271.

Agamenticus, the name given in 1636 to the region lying between the mountain and the sea, now comprising York county, Me. It was within the grant given to Gorges and Mason. There a city was formed, and incorporated in 1641, in imitation of English municipalities, with a mayor and aldermen. The city was called Gorgeana. The occupants of the land in Agamenticus were tenants at will of the proprietor. There English apple-seeds were planted and thrived, and one of the trees that sprang up lived and bore fruit

annually so late as 1875, when it was cut down. See MAINE; YORK.

Agana, the principal town and district of the island of Guam, the largest of the Ladrone Islands, in the Pacific Ocean, about 1,500 miles east of Luzon, in the Philippines. As a result of the war between the United States and Spain, the former took possession of this island, and in the following year established a seat of government in this town with Capt. Richard P. Leary, U. S. N., as the first governor. The population of the island is between eight and nine thousand; three-fourths of the people live in the district of Agana, and four-fifths of this number, or 5,249, in the town. Under American control the town and its vicinity speedily took the appearance of greater activity and prosperity than was ever before seen there; and the process of Americanizing continued with excellent results till Nov. 13, 1900, when both the town and the island were swept by a typhoon, in which the United States auxiliary cruiser *Yosemite* was wrecked on a coral reef, after drifting 60 miles from her anchorage. The navy department promptly sent relief in the form of food, clothing, and building materials to the people, who had become greatly attached to their new national connection. See GUAM.

Agassiz, ALEXANDER, naturalist; born in Neuchâtel, Switzerland, Dec. 17, 1835; son of Prof. Louis Agassiz; came to the United States in 1849; and was graduated at Harvard College in 1855, and at Lawrence Scientific School in 1857. He was curator of the Natural History Museum, in Cambridge, in 1874–85; has since been engaged in important zoological investigations; and became widely known by his connection with the famous Calumet and Hecla copper-mines. The University of St. Andrews conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. upon him, April 2, 1901.

Agassiz, ELIZABETH CABOT, naturalist and educator; born in Boston, Mass., in 1823; daughter of Thomas G. Cary; was married to Prof. Louis Agassiz in 1850. In 1865 she accompanied her husband on his expedition to Brazil, and in 1871–72 was on the *Hassler* expedition. She greatly aided her husband in his studies and writings; was joint author with her son of *Seaside Studies in Natural History;* published *Louis Agassiz: His Life and Correspondence;* and was president of the Harvard "Annex," now Radcliffe College, from its organization till 1899, when she resigned.

Agassiz, LOUIS JOHN RUDOLPH, naturalist; born in Motier parish, near Neuchâtel, Switzerland, May 28, 1807. He was of Huguenot descent, was thoroughly educated at Heidelberg and Munich, and received the honorary degree of Ph.D. He prosecuted his studies in natural history in Paris, where Cuvier offered him his collection for the purpose. The liberality of Humboldt enabled him to publish his great work (1834–44) on *Fossil Fishes,* in 5 volumes, with an atlas. He arrived in Boston in 1846, and lectured there

LOUIS AGASSIZ.

on the Animal Kingdom and on Glaciers. In the summer of 1847 the superintendent of the Coast Survey tendered him the facilities of that service for a continuance of his scientific investigations. Professor Agassiz settled in Cambridge, and was made Professor of Zoology and Geology of the Lawrence Scientific School at its foundation in 1848. That year he made, with some of his pupils, a scientific exploration of the shores of Lake Superior. He afterwards explored the southern coasts of the United States, of Brazil, and the waters of the Pacific Ocean. An account of his explorations on the Brazilian coast was given in *A Journey to Brazil,* by Mrs. Agassiz, in 1867. He received the Copley Medal from the Royal Society of London;

from the Academy of Sciences of Paris, the Monthyon Prize and the Cuvier Prize; the Wollaston Medal from the Geological Society of London; and the Medal of Merit from the King of Prussia. He was a member of many scientific societies, and the universities of Dublin and Edinburgh conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D. Professor Agassiz published valuable scientific works in Europe and in the United States. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 14, 1873.

Agawam, the Indian name of Ipswich, Mass.; settled in 1633; incorporated under the present name in 1634. See BOSTON; MASSACHUSETTS.

Age of Reason, the title of a work written by THOMAS PAINE (*q. v.*), and noted in its day for its extreme freedom of thought. See INGERSOLL, ROBERT GREEN.

Agnew, CORNELIUS REA, physician and surgeon; born in New York City, Aug. 8, 1830; was graduated at Columbia College in 1849, and at the College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1852, subsequently continuing his studies in Europe. He became surgeon-general of the State of New York in 1858, and at the beginning of the Civil War was appointed medical director of the New York State Volunteer Hospital. During the war he was also one of the most influential members of the UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION (*q. v.*). Dr. Agnew was one of the founders of the Columbia College School of Mines. He died in New York, April 8, 1888.

Agnew, Daniel, jurist; born in Trenton, N. J., Jan. 5, 1809; removed to Pittsburg, Pa.; district judge in 1851; Supreme Court judge in 1863; and chief-justice of the State in 1873; resigned in 1879. He wrote *Our National Constitution, History of Pennsylvania,* etc. He died in Beaver, Pa., March 9, 1902.

Agnew, DAVID HAYES, anatomist and author; born in Lancaster county, Pa., Nov. 24, 1818; was graduated at the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1838; became professor in the Philadelphia School of Anatomy; demonstrator of anatomy in the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania, and surgeon at the Pennsylvania and the Orthopædic hospitals, all in Philadelphia. During the Civil War he became widely known as a daring and successful operator in cases of gunshot wounds. After the war he was elected Professor of Operative Surgery and of the Principles and Practice of Surgery at the University of Pennsylvania. Dr. Agnew was the consulting and operating surgeon in the case of President Garfield in 1881. Among his numerous publications are *Practical Anatomy; Anatomy and Its Relation to Medicine and Surgery;* and *The Principles and Practice of Surgery.* He died in Philadelphia, March 22, 1892.

Agnew, JAMES, a British general; came to America late in 1775; participated in the military movements in and about Boston; and was engaged in the battle of Long Island, where, and in subsequent campaigns, he commanded the 4th Brigade of the royal army. He accompanied ex-Governor Tryon in his marauding expedition to Danbury, Conn., in the spring of 1777. He was slightly wounded in the battle of Brandywine (Sept. 11), and in the battle of Germantown (Oct. 4, 1777) he was killed.

Agnus, FELIX, journalist; born in Lyons, France, July 4, 1839; was educated in the College of Jolie Clair, near Paris; came to the United States in 1860, and in the following year entered the Union army in Duryea's Zouaves (5th New York Volunteers). At Big Bethel he saved the life of Gen. Judson Kilpatrick. He aided in recruiting the 165th New York Volunteers, of which he was made captain; in 1862 he participated in the siege of Port Hudson, La.; afterwards was promoted major and lieutenant-colonel. He next served in the 19th Corps under Sheridan and in the Department of the South. On March 13, 1865, he was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers, and in August of the same year was mustered out of the service. After the war he became the editor and publisher of the Baltimore *American.*

Agrarian Party, a political organization in Germany inspired in 1869, and practically founded in 1876. The members in recent years have become widely noted for their opposition to German commercial relations with the United States, especially in the matters of all kinds of food-stuffs. In 1898 and 1899 this opposition assumed a phase that was exceed-

ingly annoying to the German government, and the defeat of many Agrarians for the Reichstag was attributed to the direct influence of high German officials, who feared a disturbance of commercial relations with the United States.

AGREEMENT OF THE PEOPLE

Agreement of the People, a document drawn up in October, 1647, and presented in the British House of Commons on Jan. 20, 1648. The document, which follows, should be read in connection with the Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, the Articles of Confederation, and the Declaration of Independence, all of which are reflected in our national Constitution.

Having, by our late labours and hazards, made it appear to the world at how high a rate we value our just freedom, and God having so far owned our cause as to deliver the enemies thereof into our hands, we do now hold ourselves bound, in mutual duty to each other, to take the best care we can for the future, to avoid both the danger of returning into a slavish condition and the chargeable remedy of another war: for as it cannot be imagined that so many of our countrymen would have opposed us in this quarrel if they had understood their own good, so may we hopefully promise to ourselves, that when our common rights and liberties shall be cleared, their endeavours will be disappointed that seek to make themselves our masters. Since therefore our former oppressions and not-yet-ended troubles, have been occasioned either by want of frequent national meetings in council, or by the undue or unequal constitution thereof, or by rendering those meetings ineffectual, we are fully agreed and resolved, God willing, to provide, that hereafter our Representatives be neither left to an uncertainty for times nor be unequally constituted, nor made useless to the ends for which they are intended. In order whereunto we declare and agree,

First, that, to prevent the many inconveniences apparently arising from the long continuance of the same persons in supreme authority, this present Parliament end and dissolve upon, or before, the last day of April, 1649.

Secondly, that the people of England (being at this day very unequally distributed by counties, cities, and boroughs, for the election of their Representatives) be indifferently proportioned; and, to this end, that the Representatives of the whole nation shall consist of 400 persons, or not above; and in each county, and the places thereto subjoined, there shall be chosen, to make up the said Representatives at all times, the several numbers here mentioned, viz.:

KENT, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder particularly named, 10; *Canterbury,* with the Suburbs adjoining and Liberties thereof, 2; *Rochester,* with the Parishes of Chatham and Stroud, 1; *The Cinque Ports* in Kent and Sussex, viz., Dover, Romney, Hythe, Sandwich, Hastings, with the Towns of Rye and Winchelsea, 3.

SUSSEX, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Chichester, 8; *Chichester,* with the Suburbs and Liberties thereof, 1.

SOUTHAMPTON COUNTY, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 8; *Winchester,* with the Suburbs and Liberties thereof, 1; *Southampton Town* and the County thereof, 1.

DORSETSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Dorchester, 7; *Dorchester,* 1.

DEVONSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder particularly named, 12; *Exeter,* 2; *Plymouth,* 2; *Barnstaple,* 1.

CORNWALL, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 8.

SOMERSETSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 8; *Bristol,* 3; *Taunton-Dean,* 1.

WILTSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Salisbury, 7; *Salisbury,* 1.

BERKSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Reading, 5; *Reading,* 1.

SURREY, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Southwark, 5; *Southwark,* 2.

MIDDLESEX, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 4; *London,* 8; *Westminster* and the Duchy, 2.

HERTFORDSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 6.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 6.

Oxfordshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 4; *Oxford City*, 2; *Oxford University*, 2.

Gloucestershire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Gloucester, 7; *Gloucester*, 2.

Herefordshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Hereford, 4; *Hereford*, 1.

Worcestershire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Worcester, 4; *Worcester*, 2.

Warwickshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Coventry, 5; *Coventry*, 2.

Northamptonshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Northampton, 5; *Northampton*, 1.

Bedfordshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 4.

Cambridgeshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder particularly named, 4; *Cambridge University*, 2; *Cambridge Town*, 2.

Essex, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Colchester, 11; *Colchester*, 2.

Suffolk, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereafter named, 10; *Ipswich*, 2; *St. Edmund's Bury*, 1.

Norfolk, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 9; *Norwich*, 3; *Lynn*, 1; *Yarmouth*, 1.

Lincolnshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except the City of Lincoln and the Town of Boston, 11; *Lincoln*, 1; *Boston*, 1.

Rutlandshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 1.

Huntingdonshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 3.

Leicestershire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Leicester, 5; *Leicester*, 1.

Nottinghamshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Nottingham, 4; *Nottingham*, 1.

Derbyshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Derby, 5; *Derby*, 1.

Staffordshire, with the City of Lichfield, the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 6.

Shropshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Shrewsbury, 6; *Shrewsbury*, 1.

Cheshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Chester, 5; *Chester*, 2.

Lancashire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Manchester, 6; *Manchester and the Parish*, 1.

Yorkshire, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereafter named, 15; *York City and the County thereof*, 3; *Kingston upon Hull and the County thereof*, 1; *Leeds Town and Parish*, 1.

Durham County Palatine, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except Durham and Gateside, 3; *Durham City*, 1.

Northumberland, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, except such as are hereunder named, 3; *Newcastle upon Tyne and the County thereof, with Gateside*, 2; *Berwick*, 1.

Cumberland, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 3.

Westmoreland, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein, 2.

Wales

Anglesea, with the Parishes therein	2
Brecknock, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	3
Cardigan, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	3
Carmarthen, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	3
Carnarvon, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	2
Denbigh, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	2
Flint, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	1
Monmouth, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	4
Glamorgan, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	4
Merioneth, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	2
Montgomery, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	3
Radnor, with the Boroughs and Parishes therein	2
Pembroke, with the Boroughs, Towns, and Parishes therein	4

Provided, that the first or second Representative may, if they see cause, assign the remainder of the 400 representers, not hereby assigned, or so many of them as they shall see cause for, unto such counties as shall appear in this present distribution to have less than their due proportion. Provided also, that where any city or borough, to which one representer or more is assigned, shall be found in a due proportion, not competent alone to elect a representer, or the number of representers assigned thereto, it is left to future Representatives to assign such a number of parishes or villages near adjoining to such city or borough, to be joined therewith in the elections, or may make the same proportionable.

Thirdly. That the people do, of course, choose themselves a Representative once in two years, and shall meet for that purpose upon the first Thursday in every second May, by eleven in the morning; and the Representatives so chosen to meet upon the second Thursday in the June following, at the usual place in Westminster, or

such other place as, by the foregoing Representative, or the Council of State in the interval, shall be, from time to time, appointed and published to the people, at the least twenty days before the time of election: and to continue their sessions there, or elsewhere, until the second Thursday in December following, unless they shall adjourn or dissolve themselves sooner; but not to continue longer. The election of the first Representative to be on the first Thursday in May, 1649; and that, and all future elections, to be according to the rules prescribed for the same purpose in this Agreement, viz. 1. That the electors in every division shall be natives or denizens of England; not persons receiving alms, but such as are assessed ordinarily towards the relief of the poor; no servants to, and receiving wages from, any particular person; and in all elections, except for the Universities, they shall be men of twenty-one years of age, or upwards, and housekeepers, dwelling within the division for which the election is: provided, that (until the end of seven years next ensuing the time herein limited for the end of this present Parliament) no person shall be admitted to, or have any hand or voice in, such elections, who hath adhered unto or assisted the King against the Parliament in any of the late wars or insurrections; or who shall make or join in, or abet, any forcible opposition against this Agreement. 2. That such persons, and such only, may be elected to be of the Representative, who, by the rule aforesaid, are to have voice in elections in one place or other. Provided, that of those none shall be eligible for the first or second Representative, who have not voluntarily assisted the Parliament against the King, either in person before the 14th of June, 1645, or else in money, plate, horse, or arms, lent upon the Propositions, before the end of May, 1643; or who have joined in, or abbetted, the treasonable engagement in London, in 1647; or who declared or engaged themselves for a cessation of arms with the Scots that invaded this nation the last summer; or for compliance with the actors in any insurrections of the same summer; or with the Prince of Wales, or his accomplices, in the revolted fleet. Provided also, that such persons as, by the rules in the preceding Article, are not capable of electing until the end of seven years, shall not be capable to be elected until the end of fourteen years next ensuing. And we desire and recommend it to all men, that, in all times, the persons to be chosen for this great trust may be men of courage, fearing God and hating covetousness; and that our Representatives would make the best provisions for that end. 3. That whoever, by the rules in the two preceding Articles, are incapable of electing, or to be elected, shall presume to vote in, or be present at, such election for the first or second Representative; or, being elected, shall presume to sit or vote in either of the said Representatives, shall incur the pain of confiscation of the moiety of his estate, to the use of the public, in case he have any visible estate to the value of £50, and if he has not such an estate, then shall incur the pain of imprisonment for three months. And if any person shall forcibly oppose, molest or hinder the people, capable of electing as aforesaid, in their quiet and free election of representers, for the first Representative, then each person so offending shall incur the penalty of confiscation of his whole estate, both real and personal; and, if he has not an estate to the value of £50, shall suffer imprisonment during one whole year without bail or mainprize. Provided, that the offender in each case be convicted within three months next after the committing of his offence, and the first Representative is to make further provision for the avoiding of these evils in future elections. 4. That to the end all officers of state may be certainly accountable, and no faction made to maintain corrupt interests, no member of a Council of State, nor any officer of any salary-forces in army or garrison, nor any treasurer or receiver of public money, shall, while such, be elected to be of a Representative; and in case any such election shall be, the same to be void. And in case any lawyer shall be chosen into any Representative or Council of State, then he shall be incapable of practice as a lawyer during that trust. 5. For the more convenient election of Representatives, each county, wherein more than three representers are to be chosen, with the town corporate and cities, if there be any, lying within the compass thereof, to

which no representers are herein assigned, shall be divided by a due proportion into so many, and such parts, as each part may elect two, and no part above three representers. For the setting forth of which divisions, and the ascertaining of other circumstances hereafter expressed, so as to make the elections less subject to confusion or mistake, in order to the next Representative, Thomas Lord Grey of Groby, Sir John Danvers, Sir Henry Holcroft, knights; Moses Wall, gentleman; Samuel Moyer, John Langley, Wm. Hawkins, Abraham Babington, Daniel Taylor, Mark Hilsley, Rd. Price, and Col. John White, citizens of London, or any five or more of them, are intrusted to nominate and appoint, under their hands and seals, three or more fit persons in each county, and in each city and borough, to which one representer or more is assigned, to be as Commissioners for the ends aforesaid, in the respective counties, cities and boroughs; and, by like writing under their hands and seals, shall certify into the Parliament Records, before the 11th of February next, the names of the Commissioners so appointed for the respective counties, cities and boroughs, which Commissioners, or any three or more of them, for the respective counties, cities and boroughs, shall before the end of February next, by writing under their hands and seals, appoint two fit and faithful persons, or more, in each hundred, lathe or wapentake, within the respective counties, and in each ward within the City of London, to take care for the orderly taking of all voluntary subscriptions to this Agreement, by fit persons to be employed for that purpose in every parish; who are to return the subscription so taken to the persons that employed them, keeping a transcript thereof to themselves; and those persons, keeping like transcripts, to return the original subscriptions to the respective Commissioners by whom they were appointed, at, or before, the 14th day of April next, to be registered and kept in the chief court within the respective cities and boroughs. And the said Commissioners, or any three or more of them, for the several counties, cities and boroughs, respectively, shall, where more than three representers are to be chosen, divide such counties, as also the City of London, into so many, and such parts as are aforementioned, and shall set forth the bounds of such divisions; and shall, in every county, city and borough, where any representers are to be chosen, and in every such division as aforesaid within the City of London, and within the several counties so divided, respectively, appoint one place certain wherein the people shall meet for the choice of the representers; and some one fit person, or more, inhabiting within each borough, city, county or division, respectively, to be present at the time and place of election, in the nature of Sheriffs, to regulate the elections; and by poll, or otherwise, clearly to distinguish and judge thereof, and to make return of the person or persons elected, as is hereafter expressed; and shall likewise, in writing under their hands and seals, make certificates of the several divisions, with the bounds thereof, by them set forth, and of the certain places of meeting, and persons, in the nature of Sheriff, appointed in them respectively as aforesaid; and cause such certificates to be returned into the Parliament Records before the end of April next; and before that time shall also cause the same to be published in every parish within the counties, cities and boroughs respectively; and shall in every such parish likewise nominate and appoint, by warrant under their hands and seals, one trusty person, or more, inhabiting therein, to make a true list of all the persons within their respective parishes, who, according to the rules aforegoing, are to have voice in the elections; and expressing who amongst them are, by the same rules, capable of being elected; and such list, with the said warrant, to bring in and return, at the time and place of election, unto the person appointed in the nature of Sheriff, as aforesaid, for that borough, city, county or division respectively; which person so appointed as Sheriff, being present at the time and place of election; or, in case of his absence, by the space of one hour after the time limited for the peoples' meeting, then any person present that is eligible, as aforesaid, whom the people then and there assembled shall choose for that end, shall receive and keep the said lists and admit the persons therein contained, or so many of them as are present, unto a free vote in the said elec-

tion; and, having first caused this Agreement to be publicly read in the audience of the people, shall proceed unto, and regulate and keep peace and order in the elections; and, by poll or otherwise, openly distinguish and judge of the same; and thereof, by certificate or writing under the hands and seals of himself, and six or more of the electors, nominating the person or persons duly elected, shall make a true return into the Parliament Records within twenty-one days after the election, under pain for default thereof, or, for making any false return, to forfeit £100 to the public use; and also cause indentures to be made, and unchangeably sealed and delivered, between himself and six or more of the said electors, on the one part, and the persons, or each person, elected severally, on the other part, expressing their election of him as a representer of them according to this Agreement, and his acceptance of that trust, and his promise accordingly to perform the same with faithfulness, to the best of his understanding and ability, for the glory of God and good of the people. This course is to hold for the first Representative, which is to provide for the ascertaining of these circumstances in order to future Representatives.

Fourthly. That 150 members at least be always present in each sitting of the Representative, at the passing of any law or doing of any act whereby the people are to be bound; saving, that the number of sixty may take a House for debates or resolutions that are preparatory thereunto.

Fifthly. That the Representative shall, within twenty days after their first meeting, appoint a Council of State for the managing of public affairs, until the tenth day after the meeting of the next Representative, unless that next Representative think fit to put an end to that trust sooner. And the same Council to act and proceed therein, according to such instructions and limitations as the Representative shall give, and not otherwise.

Sixthly. That in each interval between biennial Representatives, the Council of State, in case of imminent danger or extreme necessity, may summon a Representative to be forthwith chosen, and to meet; so as the Session thereof continue not above eighty days; and so as it dissolve at least fifty days before the appointed time for the next biennial Representative; and upon the fiftieth day so preceding it shall dissolve of course, if not otherwise dissolved sooner.

Seventhly. That no member of any Representative be made either receiver, treasurer, or other officer during that employment, saving to be a member of the Council of State.

Eighthly. That the Representatives have, and shall be understood to have, the supreme trust in order to the preservation and government of the whole; and that their power extend, without the consent or concurrence of any other person or persons, to the erecting and abolishing of Courts of Justice and public offices, and to the enacting, altering, repealing and declaring of laws, and the highest and final judgment, concerning all natural or civil things, but not concerning things spiritual or evangelical. Provided that, even in things natural and civil, these six particulars next following are, and shall be, understood to be excepted and reserved from our Representatives, viz. 1. We do not empower them to impress or constrain any person to serve in foreign war, either by sea or land, nor for any military service within the kingdom; save that they may take order for the forming, training, and exercising of the people in a military way, to be in readiness for resisting of foreign invasions, suppressing of sudden insurrections, or for assisting in execution of the laws; and may take order for the employing and conducting of them for those ends; provided, that, even in such cases, none be compellable to go out of the county he lives in, if he procure another to serve in his room. 2. That, after the time herein limited for the commencement of the first Representative, none of the people may be at any time questioned for anything said or done in relation to the late wars or public differences, otherwise than in execution or pursuance of the determinations of the present House of Commons, against such as have adhered to the King, or his interest, against the people; and saving that accomptants for public moneys received, shall remain accountable for the same. 3. That no securities given, or to be given, by the public faith

of the nation, nor any engagements of the public faith for satisfaction of debts and damages, shall be made void or invalid by the next or any future Representative; except to such creditors as have, or shall have, justly forfeited the same: and saving, that the next Representative may confirm or make null, in part or in whole, all gifts of lands, moneys, offices, or otherwise, made by the present Parliament to any member or attendant of either House. 4. That, in any laws hereafter to be made, no person, by virtue of any tenure, grant, charter, patent, degree or birth, shall be privileged from subjection thereto, or from being bound thereby, as well as others. 5. That the Representative may not give judgment upon any man's person or estate, where no law hath before provided; some only in calling to account and punishing public officers for abusing or failing in their trust. 6. That no Representative may in any wise render up, or give, or take away, any of the foundations of common right, liberty, and safety contained in this Agreement, nor level men's estates, destroy property, or make all things common; and that, in all matters of such fundamental concernment, there shall be a liberty to particular members of the said Representatives to enter their dissents from the major vote.

Ninthly. Concerning religion, we agree as followeth:—1. It is intended that the Christian Religion be held forth and recommended as the public profession in this nation, which we desire may, by the grace of God, be reformed to the greatest purity in doctrine, worship and discipline, according to the Word of God; the instructing the people thereunto in a public way, so it be not compulsive; as also the maintaining of able teachers for that end, and for the confutation or discovering of heresy, error, and whatsoever is contrary to sound doctrine, is allowed to be provided for by our Representatives; the maintenance of which teachers may be out of a public treasury, and, we desire, not by tithes: provided, that Popery or Prelacy be not held forth as the public way or profession in this nation. 2. That, to the public profession so held forth none be compelled by penalties or otherwise; but only may be endeavoured to be won by sound doctrine, and the example of a good conversation. 3. That such as profess faith in God by Jesus Christ, however differing in judgment from the doctrine, worship or discipline publicly held forth, as aforesaid, shall not be restrained from, but shall be protected in, the profession of their faith and exercise of religion, according to their consciences, in any place except such as shall be set apart for the public worship; where we provide not for them, unless they have leave, so as they abuse not this liberty to the civil injury of others, or to actual disturbance of the public peace on their parts. Nevertheless, it is not intended to be hereby provided, that this liberty shall necessarily extend to Popery or Prelacy. 4. That all laws, ordinances, statutes, and clauses in any law, statute, or ordinance to the contrary of the liberty herein provided for, in the two particulars next preceding concerning religion, be, and are hereby, repealed and made void.

Tenthly. It is agreed that whosoever shall, by force of arms, resist the orders of the next or any future Representative (except in case where such Representative shall evidently render up, or give, or take away the foundations of common right, liberty, and safety, contained in this Agreement), he shall forthwith, after his or their such resistance, lose the benefit and protection of the laws, and shall be punishable with death, as an enemy and traitor to the nation. Of the things expressed in this Agreement: the certain ending of this Parliament, as in the first Article; the equal or proportionable distribution of the number of the representers to be elected, as in the second; the certainty of the people's meeting to elect for Representatives biennial, and their freedom in elections; with the certainty of meeting, sitting and ending of Representatives so elected, which are provided for in the third Article; as also the qualifications of persons to elect or be elected, as in the first and second particulars under the third Article: also the certainty of a number for passing a law or preparatory debates, provided for in the fourth Article; the matter of the fifth Article, concerning the Council of State, and of the sixth, concerning the calling, sitting and ending of Representatives extraordinary; also the power of Represent-

atives to be, as in the eighth Article, and limited, as in the six reserves next following the same: likewise the second and third Particulars under the ninth Article concerning religion, and the whole matter of the tenth Article; all these we do account and declare to be fundamental to our common right, liberty, and safety: and therefore do both agree thereunto, and resolve to maintain the same, as God shall enable us. The rest of the matters in this Agreement we account to be useful and good for the public; and the particular circumstances of numbers, times, and places, expressed in the several Articles, we account not fundamental; but we find them necessary to be here determined, for the making the Agreement certain and practicable, and do hold these most convenient that are here set down; and therefore do positively agree thereunto. By the appointment of his Excellency the Lord-General and his General Council of Officers.

Agricultural Colleges. In 1857, the late Justin S. Morrill, then Chairman of the Committee on Agriculture of the national House of Representatives, introduced a bill appropriating to the several States a portion of the public lands for the purpose of encouraging institutions for the advancement of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The bill lingered in Congress (having been vetoed by President Buchanan) until July, 1862, when it became a law. The act provided that each State should receive a quantity of land equal in value to $30,000 for each of its Senators and Representatives in Congress under the census of 1860, to establish at least one college in each State where "all the needful sciences for the practical avocations of life" should be taught, and "where agriculture, the foundation of all present and future prosperity, may look for troops of earnest friends studying its familiar and recondite economies." It provided that all expenses of location, management, taxation, etc., should be paid by the respective State treasurers, that the entire proceeds of the sales of the land may forever remain undiminished, and that every State receiving the grant must provide an institution within five years from the date of filing its acceptance of the grant. Every State in the Union has established one or more of these industrial colleges, with ample equipments, in which persons of both sexes may equally enjoy the benefits of the institution. Each student is paid a stipulated sum of money for every hour of labor given to the institution; and by this means students are materially aided in defraying the expenses of their education.

At the close of the school year 1898–99, there were in the several States and Territories a total of fifty agricultural and mechanical colleges for white students, and fourteen for the colored race. The receipts of the year were: From the federal government under the original and subsequent acts of Congress, $1,769,716, from State and Territorial treasuries, $2,570,427; and from other sources, $1,852,873—a total of $6,193,016. There were 2,655 men and 312 women teachers, 26,121 men and 9,337 women students, 4,390 students in the purely agricultural course, and 6,730 students in the four engineering courses. The expenditures were $4,544,376.

Agricultural Experiment Stations. The United States appropriates about $15,000 yearly to each of the States and Territories which have established such stations. The first was that of Middletown, Conn., in 1875. There are now sixty such stations, of which fifty-four receive financial aid from the United States.

Agricultural Implements. The United States for many years has led the world in the invention and use of appliances for tilling the soil. The extension of farming to large areas, as in Minnesota, Nebraska, and the Dakotas, where farms of 50,000 acres are not unusual, has called for quicker means of ploughing, sowing, and reaping than is possible by hand. Hence inventive genius has recognized the new conditions and provided ploughs, seeding-machines, cultivators, reapers, binders, and other apparatus operated by horse and steam-power. The invention of the mowing-machine is coeval, in our country, with the reaping-machine. The "Manning" mower was invented in 1831. That and the "Ketcham" (1844) held the place of superior excellence until about 1850, when other inventors had made improvements. In 1850 less than 5,000 mowing-machines had been made in our country. Within

a quarter of a century afterwards a mowing-machine was considered indispensable to every farm. The American machines are the best in the world, and are sold all over Europe and South America.

The plough used in this country during the colonial period was made of wood, covered with sheet-iron, the share being of wrought-iron. In 1793, Thomas Jefferson, who had been experimenting on his Virginia farm, invented an improved mould-board, which would turn a furrow without breaking it. In 1797, Charles Newbold, of Burlington, N. J., invented a cast-iron plough, and spent about $30,000 in perfecting it. It proved a great loss and failure to him, however, for the report spread among the farmers that the new plough "poisoned the soil, ruined the crops, and promoted the growth of rocks"; and, as they refused to use it, the manufacture of the new invention ceased. About 1804 Daniel Peacock patented a plough having its mould-board and landside of cast-iron and separate, while its share was of wrought-iron, edged with steel. Jethro Wood, of Scipio, N. Y., patented improvements on this in 1819, and the prejudice against new inventions among farmers having somewhat abated, he did a very successful business as a maker of these implements, and his plans have been the basis of most all those of modern construction. The first steam-plough in the United States was patented by E. C. Bellinger, of South Carolina, in 1833, but did not come into practical use until much later.

Perhaps the "Great Plough," invented by Daniel Webster, which was twelve feet long, drawn by four yoke of oxen, and turned a furrow two feet wide and one foot deep, may be regarded as the unwieldy precursor of the admirable and efficient sulky ploughs of later times. The value of inventive genius to the farmer, however, is not shown as much in the improvements of the plough as in the mowers and reaping-machines which to-day take the places of sickle, scythe, and cradle, laboriously wielded by our forefathers. The first reaping-machine in America was patented in 1803 by Richard French and John J. Hankins. One wheel of the machine ran in the grain, and the cutting was done by a number of scythes which revolved on a pivot. It did not prove very successful. Two or three other like machines were patented in the following twenty-five years. In 1831 the Manney mower was patented, which was the first successful machine of the kind.

In 1833, Mr. Obed Hussey, of Cincinnati, O., patented a reaper, with saw-toothed cutters and guards, which was immediately put into practical operation, and proved thoroughly satisfactory. In 1834, Cyrus H. McCormick, then of Virginia, and late of Chicago, took out the first patent on his reaper, which has since come into such general use. This reaper, with improvements patented in 1845 and 1847, received the first prize at the World's Fair of 1851, where American reapers were first introduced to the notice of Europeans. At the International Exhibition at Paris, in 1855, American reapers were brought into competition with others, each machine being allowed to cut an acre of standing oats near Paris. The American reaper did its work in twenty-two minutes, the English in sixty, and an Algerian in seventy-two. It used a cutter similar to that of Hussey's machine, its main features being the reel, the divider, the receiving platform for the grain, and the stand for the raker. American reaping-machines are now used all over Europe where cereals abound. The automatic rake was patented by a Mr. Seymour, of Brockport, N. Y., in 1851, and in 1856 Mr. Dorsey, of Maryland, patented the revolving rake, which was improved upon by Samuel Johnston, of Brockport, in 1865. The first self-binder was patented by C. W. and W. W. Marsh in 1858.

The first threshing-machine used here was largely modelled after the invention of Andrew Meikle, a Scotchman, patented in Great Britain in 1788, but this has since been changed in detail, till scarcely more than the outline of the original plan is left. The fanning-machine was originally invented in Holland, though largely improved and altered by American inventions. An agricultural implement of great importance to one part of the country, at least, is the cotton-gin. The first machine of this kind was invented by M. Debreuil, a French planter of Louisiana, but did not prove successful. Whitney's cotton-gin, which did succeed, and increased

the production of cotton tenfold in two years, was invented in 1793.

The census of 1900 reported 715 establishments engaged in the manufacture of agricultural implements. These had a capital investment of $157,707,951, employed 46,582 persons, paid $22,450,880 for wages, and $43,944,628 for materials used in construction, and turned out implements valued at $101,207,428. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, the exportation of American-made agricultural implements aggregated in value $16,094,886.

Agricultural Societies. The first society in the United States was formed by planters of South Carolina in 1784, and it is yet in existence. The next year the "Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture" was formed, and in 1791 citizens of New York organized a similar society. In 1792 the "Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture" was organized. These were city institutions, and not composed of practical farmers. They dealt with facts and theories. The majority of husbandmen then did not hear nor heed their appeals for improvements. But finally the more intelligent of that class of citizens became interested, and a convention of practical farmers in the District of Columbia, held in 1809, resulted in the formation of the "Columbian Agricultural Society for the Promotion of Rural and Domestic Economy." They offered premiums; and their fair, held in May, 1810, is believed to be the first exhibition of its kind in this country. ELKANAH WATSON (*q. v.*) founded the "Berkshire (Mass.) Agricultural Society" in 1810, and there was a grand "Agricultural Fair and Cattle Show" at Pittsfield in September, 1811. It was the first of the county fairs held in this country. From that time until now there has been, at first a gradual, and then a rapid, increase in such institutions; and now they exist in every State and Territory of the Union.

Agriculture. Nothing can more adequately demonstrate the remarkable development of the agricultural industry in the United States than the statement of the value of the exports of the products of agriculture during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1903 and 1904. Impressive as these figures are, it should be borne in mind that they represent the surplus of production over domestic requirements. The total domestic exports aggregated in value, in 1903, $1,392,231,302; in 1904, $1,435,171,251; and of these totals the share of agricultural products was $873,322,882 in 1903 and $853,685,367 in 1904, or 62.73 and 59.48 per cent. of the entire value. In the fiscal year 1899–1900 the exports aggregated in value $1,370,476,158, and of this total the share of agricultural products was $835,912,952, or 60.99 per cent. of the entire value. In the preceding year the percentage was 65.19; but in 1899–1900 the exports of domestic manufactures increased to an unprecedented extent, and caused a lowering of the agricultural percentage. In the fiscal year 1903–04 the export of agricultural implements rose in value to $22,749,635.

The following details, covering the calendar year 1903, show still more strikingly the great value of this industry and its most productive crops: Wheat, acreage under cultivation, 49,464,967; production, in bushels, 637,821,835; value, $443,024,826—corn, acreage, 88,081,993; production, 2,244,176,926; value, $952,868,801—oats, acreage, 27,638,126; production, 784,094,199; value, $267,661,665—rye, acreage, 1,906,894; production, 29,363,416; value, $15,993,871—buckwheat, acreage, 804,393; production, 14,243,644; value, $8,650,733—barley, acreage, 4,993,137; production, 131,861,391; value, $60,166,313—potatoes, acreage, 2,916,855; production, 247,127,880; value, $151,638,094—hay, acreage, 39,933,759; production, in tons, 61,305,940; value, $556,376,880—cotton (1902–03), production, in bales, 10,630,945; value, $501,897,135. Nine branches of this industry yielded $2,958,278,318.

The extent of agricultural operations is shown by the census of 1900. The number of farms exceeding three acres in extent was 5,737,372, aggregating 838,591,774 acres, of which 414,498,487 acres were improved; and the number of farms cultivated by owners was 3,712,408. Farm valuations included land, fences, and buildings, $16,614,647,491, and implements and machinery, $749,775,970. The estimated value of all farm products in the preceding year was $4,717,069,973.

In the matter of farm and ranch animals it is difficult to distinguish clearly

between those used in strict farming operations and those that would more naturally be included under stock-raising. In its official reports the Department of Agriculture aggregates all such stock. On Jan. 1, 1904, the number and value of these animals were as follows: Horses, 16,736,059; value, $1,136,940,298—mules, 2,757,916; value, $217,532,832 — milch cows, 17,419,817; value, $508,841,489—other cattle, 90,638,865; value, $1,001,402,761—and sheep, 51,630,144; value, $133,530,099—a total value of $2,998,247,479. It is curious to note here that for several years past the values of the chief crop productions and of the farm and ranch animals have closely approximated each other.

Agriculture, Department of. See Cabinet, President's.

Aguadilla, the name of a district and of its principal town and port in the extreme northwestern part of the island of Porto Rico. The district is bounded on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the district of Arecibo, and on the south by the district of Mayaguez. The town is on a bay of the same name, and has a population of about 5,000. Industries in the town and vicinity consist of the cultivation of sugar-cane, coffee, tobacco, and cocoa-nuts, and the distillation of rum from molasses. Three establishments in the town prepare coffee for exportation. The climate is hot but healthful, and yellow fever rarely occurs.

Aguadores, a port in the province of Santiago, Cuba, a few miles east of the entrance to Santiago harbor. On June 6, 1898, the defences at this place, as well as the shore batteries off Santiago, were bombarded by Admiral Sampson, ten vessels of all grades being engaged and operating in a double line. This movement was executed for the purpose of concentrating the attention of the Spaniards to this point in order to secure the success of operations at Caimanera, in the Bay of Guantanamo, 40 miles east of Santiago, which were carried out on the following day.

Aguinaldo, Emilio, leader of the Philippine insurgents in their insurrection against Spanish authority, in 1896, and organizer and president of the so-called Filipino Republic; was born in Imus, in the province of Cavité, in Luzon, in 1870. He is a Chinese mestizo (of Chinese and Tagalog parentage), and received his early education at the College of St. Jean de Lateran and the University of St. Tomas, in Manila. Later he became the protégé of a Jesuit priest, and was for a time a student in the medical department of the Pontifical University of Manila. In 1883 he went to Hong-Kong, became interested in military affairs, learned something of

EMILIO AGUINALDO.

the English, French, and Chinese languages, and through his reputation for ability, shrewdness, and diplomacy, and his personal magnetism, gained great influence with his countrymen. In the rebellion of 1896 he was a commanding figure, and was at the head of the diplomatic party, which succeeded in making terms with the Spanish government, the latter paying a large sum to the Philippine leaders. In Hong-Kong he quarrelled with his associates over the division of this money, and went to Singapore, where he remained until the outbreak of the Spanish-American War.

Aguinaldo presented himself to Admiral Dewey at Cavité shortly after the battle of Manila Bay, and was given an opportunity to organize the Filipinos against the Spanish authority; but no promises were made to him, and the insurgents were never officially recognized by the Ameri-

cans. The cruel treatment of the Spanish prisoners by the Filipinos, and their claim to the right of sacking the city, after the capture of Manila, soon caused serious relations between the natives and the United States officers. On June 12, 1898, Aguinaldo organized his so-called Filipino Republic, with himself as president, and soon proclaimed himself dictator. He organized an extensive conspiracy among the native population of Manila, with the intention of massacring the entire American and foreign population of the city; but the plot was discovered and failed. He protested against the Spanish-American treaty of peace, which ceded the Philippine Islands to the United States, and on the evening of Feb. 4, 1899, his troops attacked the American lines in the suburbs of Manila.

This caused the immediate ratification of the treaty by the United States Senate. The Filipinos, under Aguinaldo, made a strong resistance to the Americans, and it was not till after the close of the rainy season that they could be followed up in the open field. Early in 1900 the organized insurrection, which was chiefly confined to the Tagalog nationality, was broken up. Aguinaldo was driven into hiding, and reports of his death had persistent circulation. Later in the year, the insurgents, encouraged by the possible change of administration in the United States, actively renewed hostilities; but, discouraged by their repeated failures in their attacks on the American troops, and the news of the re-election of President McKinley, they began giving up the struggle and surrendering in large bodies to the American officers. Aguinaldo himself was captured by Gen. Frederick Funston (*q. v.*) on March 23, 1901, at his hiding-place in Palanan, Isabella Province, Luzon, and was immediately taken to Manila.

He had been located by means of the capture of his secret cipher code in a drug-store in Manila, from which the insurgents had been furnished with medical supplies. As soon as his hiding-place was known, General Funston planned the scheme for his capture. He chose a number of native troops, informing them that they were to pass themselves off as Aguinaldo's expected reinforcements. Four Tagalogs who had been officers in the insurgent army were first selected, and then seventy-eight trustworthy Maccabebe scouts were picked out. Besides General Funston this expedition was accompanied by Captain Hazzard, of the 1st United States Cavalry, and Lieutenant Mitchell and Captain Newton, of the 34th Infantry. On March 6, at 4 P.M., the expedition embarked on the gunboat *Vicksburg* at Cavité. At 2 A.M. on the 14th General Funston and his party were landed within a short distance of Baler, about 20 miles south of Casiguran, the place nearest the reported headquarters of Aguinaldo, suitable for a base of operations. As the *Vicksburg* had displayed no lights and had used extreme precaution, not the slightest suspicion was excited by the landing. An ex-colonel of the insurgent army was the nominal commander of the expedition. About twenty Maccabebes were dressed in the insurgent uniform, the rest being attired in the ordinary dress of the country. The American officers, who were dressed as privates, posed as prisoners. When the party arrived at Casiguran a message was forwarded to Auginaldo that the re-enforcements he had ordered were on their way to Palanan, and a further statement was enclosed that there had been an engagement with Americans, five of whom, with Krag rifles, had been captured. In six days the expedition marched 90 miles over a most difficult country. When within 8 miles of Aguinaldo's camp the fact that he sent provisions proved the ruse had thus far worked admirably. On March 23 the party reached the camp, where Aguinaldo received the supposed officers at his house, located on the Palanan River. After a brief conversation with him the party quietly excused themselves, and at once orders were given to fire upon Aguinaldo's body-guard, who fled in consternation. Two of them, however, were killed and eighteen wounded. During this engagement the American officers rushed into Aguinaldo's house, and succeeded in taking him, Colonel Villa, his chief of staff, and Santiago Barcelona, the insurgent treasurer. After remaining two days in the camp the party returned to the coast, where the *Vicksburg*, which was in waiting, received them, and conveyed the entire party to Manila.

On April 2 he subscribed and swore to

the following declaration which had been prepared by the American military authorities for use in the Philippines:

"I, ———, hereby renounce all allegiance to any and all so-called revolutionary governments in the Philippine Islands, and recognize and accept the supreme authority of the United States of America therein; I do solemnly swear that I will bear true faith and allegiance to that government; that I will at all times conduct myself as a faithful and law-abiding citizen of the said islands, and will not, either directly or indirectly, hold correspondence with or give intelligence to an enemy of the United States, nor will I abet, harbor, or protect such enemy; that I impose upon myself these voluntary obligations without any mental reservations or purpose of evasion, so help me God."

His Last Proclamation.—Copies of what was probably the full text of the last proclamation issued by Aguinaldo previous to his capture by General Funston were received at the War Department in Washington in March, 1901. The proclamation was contained in the Filipinos' *Anti-Europa,* the organ of the Filipino insurgents, published at Madrid, Spain, and appears in the issue of that paper of March 10, 1901. A translation of the article is here given: The following proclamation has been recently received by this paper, which will probably satisfy the clamor of all Filipinos:

Don Emilio Aguinaldo y Famy, President of the Philippine Republic, Captain-General, and General-in-Chief of her army:

Heart-broken groans of the oppressed and of their unfortunate families, and energetic protests from the entire people of the Philippines, come to my far-off camp on account of the unheard-of cruelties and scornful violations of the most elementary laws of war committed by the imperialists who, under pretext of some American having been killed, hang their prisoners of war by means which are both repugnant and inhuman, the agony lasting about fifteen minutes, according to the press of Manila, or otherwise submitting them to unheard-of tortures, according to the official communications from my various commanding generals; and if this were not sufficient, the military governor of the invading army has proclaimed martial law, placing beyond the protection of law not only Filipinos under arms, but also all peaceful residents, whom they arrest and deport without giving them a hearing, almost always for no other purpose than to loot their houses and treasures, or to await a ransom or bribe for their liberty.

According to the censored press of Manila during the month of October only thirty-six Filipinos in various provinces were hanged; the totals for the month of November and December were the same, and during the first ten days of this month the United States courts-martial have condemned to the same inhuman death the following:

Fifteen in San Isidro (Doroteo Noul and his fellow-martyrs), nine in Tayabas, one in Baler, one in Bolinao, one in Pangasinan, one in Donsol, and three in Tayaba, a total of twenty-eight death sentences in ten days, according to information given the Manila press by the staff of the enemy.

In addition to all this the invaders have committed another violation of the Geneva international treaty by employing against us our own countrymen, who have sold themselves to them, sowing by this atrocious measure the seeds of a civil war, which could very well occur after this war, which is desolating this poor country, if those now counted as traitors should form a regular group, thus making more and more remote the coming of the long-sought-for peace.

I protest, therefore, before God and the honorable men of the whole world, in the name of the Philippine people, against such iniquitous measures, and for our own defence:

I order and command—

Article I. All guerilla chiefs as soon as they capture any armed American citizen, shall take him into the interior at once, and shall communicate with the chief of the nearest American detachment, urgently requesting the exchange of prisoners at the rate of one American for every three Filipinos of the many who are condemned to death by them, and who expect to be led to execution at any moment, and informing him that he would be responsible for the reprisals which we would see ourselves obliged to take in our just defence. If said American chief should refuse to make the exchange requested, the American prisoners shall be shot, whatever be their number, which punishment is fixed in the Spanish penal code, which we have adopted for those who attack our national integrity, if in four days after the exchange requested the execution of some Filipino sentenced by the Americans should be announced.

Article II. Preference should also be given in exchange of prisoners to deported Filipinos, and to those who have rendered signal service to the cause of our independence.

Article III. The promoters of the so-called Federal party shall be submitted as traitors to a most summary court-martial, and those who stimulate the invaders to pursue and prosecute our fellow-countrymen who do not wish to identify themselves therewith shall be punished with special severity, and after those who are guilty have been sentenced, they shall be captured and punished wherever they may be, and by any means which may be possible.

Article IV. The commanding generals and all guerilla chiefs in their respective districts are entrusted with and responsible for a speedy execution of this general order.

Given in the capital of the republic on Jan. 17, 1901. E. AGUINALDO.

There is a seal in purple ink, consisting of a sun and three stars, and the words, "Philippine Republic, Office of the President."

Address of Submission.—After his capture Aguinaldo was fully informed of the actual situation in all parts of the archipelago, not only by the United States military, naval, and civil authorities, but by many of his former generals and supporters who had surrendered. He was thus led to issue the following address to the Filipinos, which was published in Manila on April 19:

"I believe I am not in error in presuming that the unhappy fate to which my adverse fortune has led me is not a surprise to those who have been familiar with the progress of the war. The lessons taught with a full meaning, and which have recently come to my knowledge, suggest with irresistible force that a complete termination of hostilities and lasting peace are not only desirable, but absolutely essential to the welfare of the Philippine Islands.

"The Filipinos have never been dismayed at their weakness, nor have they faltered in following the path pointed out by their fortitude and courage. The time has come, however, in which they find their advance along this path to be impeded by an irresistible force which, while it restrains them, yet enlightens their minds and opens to them another course presenting them the cause of peace. This cause has been joyfully embraced by the majority of my fellow-countrymen, who have already united around the glorious sovereign banner of the United States.

"In this banner they repose their trust, and believe that under its protection the Filipino people will attain all those promised liberties which they are beginning to enjoy. The country has declared unmistakably in favor of peace. So be it. There has been enough blood, enough tears, and enough desolation. This wish cannot be ignored by the men still in arms if they are animated by a desire to serve our noble people, which has thus clearly manifested its will. So do I respect this will, now that it is known to me.

"After mature deliberation, I resolutely proclaim to the world that I cannot refuse to heed the voice of a people longing for peace nor the lamentations of thousands of families yearning to see their dear ones enjoying the liberty and the promised generosity of the great American nation.

"By acknowledging and accepting the sovereignty of the United States throughout the Philippine Archipelago, as I now do, and without any reservation whatsoever, I believe that I am serving thee, my beloved country. May happiness be thine."

See ATKINSON, EDWARD; LUZON; MANILA; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Ainsworth, FREDERICK CRAYTON, military officer; born in Woodstock, Vt., Sept. 11, 1852; was appointed a first lieutenant and assistant surgeon in the United States army in 1874; promoted major and surgeon in 1891; colonel and chief of the Record and Pension Office in the War Department in 1892; and brigadier-general in 1899. He invented and introduced the index-record card system, by the use of which the full military history of any soldier may be immediately traced. About 50,000,000 of these cards have been placed on file, and their introduction has resulted in a yearly saving of more than $400,000. In 1898 he succeeded Gen. George W. Davis as supervisor of the publication of the official records of the Civil War.

Aitken, ROBERT, publisher; born in Scotland in 1734; arrived in Philadelphia in 1769; was a practical printer, and published the *Pennsylvania Magazine, or American Monthly Museum*, 1775–76. He was a warm Whig, and was thrown into prison by the British in 1777. He issued the first American edition of the Bible in 1782. He died in Philadelphia in July, 1802.

Aix-la-Chapelle Treaty. See LOUISBURG.

Akerman, AMOS TAPPAN, statesman; born in New Hampshire in 1823. Served in the Confederate army. He was United States district attorney for Georgia, 1866–70; Attorney-General of the United States 1870–72. He died Dec. 21, 1880.

Alabama. The soil of this State was first trodden by Europeans in 1540. These were the followers of DE SOTO (*q. v.*). In 1702, Bienville, the French governor of Louisiana, entered Mobile Bay, and built a fort and trading-house at the mouth of Dog River. In 1711 the French founded Mobile, and there a colony prospered for a while. Negro slaves were first brought into this colony by three French ships of war in 1721. By the

STATE SEAL OF ALABAMA.

treaty of 1763 this region was transferred by France to Great Britain. Alabama formed a portion of the State of Georgia, but in 1798 the country now included in the States of Alabama and Mississippi was organized as a Territory called Mississippi. After the Creeks disappeared (see CREEK INDIANS) the region of Alabama was rapidly settled by white people, and in 1819 it entered the Union as a State. The slave population increased more rapidly than the white. In the Democratic National Convention that was held at Charleston in 1860 the delegates of Alabama took the lead in seceding from the convention.

In October of that year, Herschell V. Johnson, the candidate for Vice-President on the Douglas ticket, declared, in a speech at the Cooper Institute, New York, that Alabama was ripe for revolt in case Mr. Lincoln should be elected; that it was pledged to withdraw from the Union, and had appropriated $200,000 for military contingencies. The governor suggested secession at the beginning of November; and in December, 1860, the conference of the Methodist Church, South, sitting at Montgomery, declared "African slavery as it existed in the Southern States of the republic, a wise, beneficent, humane, and righteous institution, approved of God, and calculated to promote, to the highest possible degree, the welfare of the slave; that the election of a sectional President of the United States was evidence of the hostility of the majority to the people of the South, and which in fact, if not in form, dissolves the compact of union between the States." Northern Alabama was opposed to the movement.

Elections for members of a State convention in Alabama were held Dec. 24, 1860, and as in some of the other States, the politicians were divided into "Secessionists" and "Co-operationists." The latter were also divided; one party wishing the co-operation of all the slave-labor States, and the other caring only for the co-operation of the cotton-producing States. The vote for all but ten counties was, for secession, 24,445; and for co-operation, 33,685. In the ten counties, some were for secession and some for co-operation. In the convention assembled at Montgomery, Jan. 7, 1861, every county in the State was represented. William Brooks was chosen president. There was a powerful infusion of Union sentiment in the convention, which endeavored to postpone a decision, under the plea of the desirableness of co-operation. A committee of thirteen was appointed to report an Ordinance of Secession. It was submitted on the 10th. It was longer than any other already adopted, but similar in tenor. They assumed that the commonwealth, which had been created by the national government first a Territory, and then a State (1819), had "delegated sovereign powers" to that government, which were now "resumed and vested in the people of the State of Alabama." The convention favored the formation of a confederacy of slave-labor States, and formally invited the others to send delegates to meet those of Alabama, in general convention, on Feb. 4, at Montgomery, for consultation on the subject. The convention was not harmonious. Union men were not to be put down without a struggle. There was a minority report on Secession; and some were for postponing the act until March 4, with a hope of preserving the Union. Nicholas Davis, from northern Alabama, declared his belief that the people of his section would not submit to any disunion scheme, when YANCEY (*q. v.*) denounced him and his fellow-citizens of that region as "tories, traitors, and rebels," and said they "ought to be coerced into submission." Davis was not moved by these menaces, but assured the Confederates that the people of his section would be ready to meet their enemies on the line and decide the issue at the point of the bayonet. The final vote on the Ordinance of Secession was taken at 2 P.M. on Jan. 11, and resulted in sixty-one yeas to thirty-nine nays. An immense mass-meeting was immediately held in front of the State-house, and timid "co-operationists" assured the multitude that their constituents would support the ordinance. A Secession flag, which the women of Montgomery had presented to the convention, was raised over the capital. In Mobile, when the news reached that city, 101 guns were fired in honor of Alabama, and fifteen for Florida. At night the city blazed with fireworks, the favorite pieces being the *Southern Cross*

and the *Lone Star*. The convention had voted against the reopening of the slave-trade, and adjourned on Jan. 30, 1861.

A week before the Secession Ordinance was adopted, volunteer troops, in accordance with an arrangement made with the governors of Louisiana and Georgia, and by order of the governor of Alabama, had seized the arsenal at Mount Vernon, about 30 miles above Mobile, and Fort Morgan, at the entrance to Mobile Harbor, about 30 miles below the city. The Mount Vernon arsenal was captured by four Confederate companies commanded by Captain Leadbetter, of the United States Engineer Corps, and a native of Maine. At dawn (Jan. 4, 1861) they surprised Captain Reno, who was in command of the arsenal, and the Alabama Confederates thus obtained 15,000 stands of arms, 150,000 pounds of gunpowder, some cannon, and a large quantity of munitions of war.

The Alabama Senators and Representatives withdrew from Congress Jan. 21, 1861. On March 13, a State convention ratified the constitution adopted by the Confederate Congress. The authorities of the State seized the national property within its borders, and sent troops to Florida to assist in capturing Fort Pickens and other public works there. Alabama sent a commissioner to Washington as an ambassador, but he was not received. During the war that ensued, Alabama bore her share of the burden, and her cities and plantations suffered from the ravages of the conflict. Wilson's cavalry raid through the State caused great destruction of property. During the war Alabama furnished 122,000 troops to the Confederate army, of whom 35,000 were killed or wounded. Montgomery, in the interior of the State, was the Confederate capital until July, 1861, when the seat of government was removed to Richmond. At the close of the war a provisional governor for Alabama was appointed (June 21, 1865), and in September a convention reordained the civil and criminal laws, excepting such as related to slavery; declared the Ordinance of Secession and the State war-debt null; passed an ordinance against slavery; and provided for an election of State officers, who were chosen in November. The government thus constituted remained in force until superseded by military rule in 1867. In November of that year a convention formed a new constitution for the State, which was ratified Feb. 4, 1868. State officers and members of Congress having been duly chosen, and all requirements complied with, Alabama became entitled to representation in Congress; and on July 14, 1868, the military relinquished to the civil authorities all legal control. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the national Constitution were ratified by Alabama, the latter Nov. 16, 1870. Population in 1890, 1,508,073; in 1900, 1,828,697. See UNITED STATES—ALABAMA, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF THE MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY.

Including the present States of Alabama and Mississippi.

NAMES.	TERM OF OFFICE.
Winthrop Sargent	1799 to 1801
Wm. C. C. Claiborne	1801 " 1805
Robt. Williams	1805 " 1809
David Holmes	1809 " 1817

GOVERNOR OF THE TERRITORY OF ALABAMA.

Wm. Wyatt Bibb	Mar. 1817 to Nov. 1819

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE OF ALABAMA.

Wm. Wyatt Bibb	Nov., 1819 to July, 1820
Thomas Bibb	July, 1820 " Nov., 1821
Israel Pickens	Nov., 1821 " " 1825
John Murphy	" 1825 " " 1829
Gabriel Moore	" 1829 " Mar., 1831
Saml. B. Moore	Mar., 1831 " Nov., 1831
John Gayle	Nov., 1831 " " 1835
Clement C. Clay	" 1835 " July, 1837
Hugh McVay	July, 1837 " Nov., 1837
Arthur P. Bagby	Nov., 1837 " " 1841
Benj. Fitzpatrick	" 1841 " " 1845
Joshua L. Martin	" 1845 " " 1847
Reuben Chapman	" 1847 " " 1849
Henry Watkins Collier	" 1849 " " 1853
John A. Winston	" 1853 " " 1857
Andrew B. Moore	" 1857 " " 1861
John Gill Shorter	" 1861 " " 1863
Thomas H. Watts	" 1863 " Apr., 1865
Interregnum of two months.	
Lewis E. Parsons	June, 1865 to Dec., 1865
Robt. M. Patton	Dec., 1865 " July, 1868
Wm. H. Smith	July, 1868 " Nov., 1870
Robt. B. Lindsay	Nov., 1870 " " 1872
David B. Lewis	" 1872 " " 1874
Geo. S. Houston	" 1874 " " 1878
Rufus W. Cobb	" 1878 " " 1882
Edward N. O'Neal	" 1882 " " 1886
Thomas Seay	" 1886 " " 1890
Thomas G. Jones	" 1890 " " 1894
William C. Oates	" 1894 " " 1896
Joseph F. Johnston	" 1896 " " 1900
W. J. Samford*	" 1900 " June, 1901
W. D. Jelks	June, 1901 " Jan., 1907

* W. J. Samford died June 12, 1901.

UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM THE STATE OF ALABAMA.

Names.	No. of Congress.	Date.
William R. King	16th to 28th	1819 to 1844
John W. Walker	16th " 17th	1819 " 1822
William Kelley	17th " 19th	1823 " 1825
Henry Chambers	19th	1825 " 1826
Israel Pickens	19th to 20th	1826
John McKinley	19th " 22d	1826 to 1831
Gabriel Moore	22d " 25th	1831 " 1837
Clement C. Clay	25th " 27th	1837 " 1841
Arthur P. Bagby	27th " 30th	1841 " 1848
Dixon H. Lewis	28th " 30th	1844 " 1848
William R. King	30th " 32d	1848 " 1852
Benj. Fitzpatrick	30th " 36th	1848 " 1861
Jeremiah Clemens	31st " 33d	1849 " 1853
Clement C. Clay, Jr.	33d " 36th	1853 " 1861
37th, 38th, and 39th Congresses vacant.		
George E. Spencer	40th to 46th	1868 to 1879
Williard Warner	40th " 42d	1868 " 1871
George Goldthwaite	42d " 45th	1872 " 1877
John T. Morgan	45th " ——	1877 " ——
James L. Pugh	47th " 55th	1880 " 1897
Edmund W. Pettus	55th " ——	1897 " ——

Alabama, The, Confederate man-of-war; a British vessel, manned chiefly by British subjects at a British port; armed with British cannon, and provided with coal and other supplies from British soil. She had no acknowledged flag, nor recognized nationality, nor any accessible port to which she might send her prizes, nor any legal tribunal to adjudge her captures. She was commanded by Raphael Semmes, a native of Maryland, and roamed the seas, plundering and destroying vessels belonging to American citizens. Her commander avoided contact with American armed vessels, but finally encountered the *Kearsarge,* Capt. John A. Winslow, off Cherbourg, France, in the summer of 1864. On June 19 Semmes went out of the harbor of Cherbourg to fight the *Kearsarge.* The Alabama was accompanied by a French frigate to a point beyond the territorial waters of France. At a distance of 7 miles from the Cherbourg breakwater, the *Kearsarge* turned and made for the Confederate cruiser, when, within 1,200 yards of her, the latter opened fire. After receiving two or three broadsides, the *Kearsarge* responded with telling effect. They fought for an hour, the steamers moving in a circle. At the end of the hour the *Alabama* was at the mercy of her antagonist, her flag down, and a white flag displayed over her stern. Respecting this, Winslow ceased firing. Two minutes afterwards the *Alabama* fired two guns at the *Kearsarge,* and attempted to run to the protection of the French neutral waters, not more than 3 miles distant. Winslow opened fire again, and very soon a boat came to his vessel from the *Alabama,* saying she had surrendered and was fast sinking. Just then the *Deerhound* passed by, when Winslow humanely asked her owner to assist him in saving the crew of the *Alabama,* which, in twenty minutes, went to the bottom of the sea. The *Kearsarge* rescued sixty-five of the crew; the *Deerhound* picked up Semmes, his officers, and a few mariners, and carried them away from the lawful custody of Winslow, to England. There Semmes was received with great honor. The *Kearsarge* had three men badly wounded—one of them mortally. The *Alabama* had nine men killed and twenty-one wounded. See Arbitration, Tribunal of; Joint High Commission; Kearsarge.

THE ALABAMA.

Alabama Claims, The, a series of claims against Great Britain for losses sustained by the United States through depredations on her commerce by Confederate vessels fitted out or supplied in English ports. As finally presented they were as follows:

	No. of Vessels Destroyed.	Loss.
Alabama	58	$6,547,609.86
Boston	1	400.00
Chickamauga	3	95,654.85
Florida	38	3,698,609.34
Georgia	5	383,976.50
Nashville	1	69,536.70
Retribution	2	20,334.52
Sallie	1	5,540.00
Shenandoah	40	6,488,320.31
Sumter	3	10,695.83
Tallahassee	17	579,955.55
For losses from increased war premiums		1,120,795.15
		$19,021,428.61

See ARBITRATION, TRIBUNAL OF; JOINT HIGH COMMISSION.

Alabama Letter, THE. Henry Clay, Whig candidate for President in 1844, had a fair prospect for election when his letter to a friend in Alabama, on the annexation of Texas, appeared in the *North Alabamian*, on Aug. 16. It was represented by his adversaries as a complete change of policy on his part. The Whig campaign became "defensive" from this time, and resulted in defeat. See CLAY, HENRY.

Alamo, FORT, a structure in San Antonio, Tex.; erected for a mission building in 1744; used for religious purposes till 1793, when, on account of the great strength of its walls, it was converted into a fort. In the struggle by Texas for independence, the most sanguinary and heroic conflict of the border warfare, which merged into the Mexican War, occurred there—a conflict which for years was familiar to Americans as the Thermopylæ of Texas. The fort was about an acre in extent, oblong, and surrounded by a wall 8 or 10 feet in height by 3 feet in thickness. A body of Texans, under the command of Col. William Barrett Travis, retired into the fort early in 1836, upon the dismantling of San Antonio by Sam Houston, and then Santa Ana, with a large force, invested the fort Feb. 23. The Texans numbered only 140 men, while the Mexican army was 4,000 strong. The enemy took possession of the town, then erected batteries on both sides of the river, and for twenty-four hours bombarded the fort, during which, it is stated, over 200 shells were discharged into it, but without injuring a man. The attacking forces made several vigorous assaults on the fort, but were repulsed in each case. The commander of the beleaguered garrison sent many couriers to San Felipe for assistance, but only a handful of men succeeded in reaching the fort. As the siege progressed provisions grew scarce, and the defenders of Alamo, worn by the labors of the defence and broken in health, although not in spirits, were hourly becoming less able to hold their posts. March 6 a combined attack was made by the entire forces of the besiegers; twice they assaulted the posts, and were as often driven back with heavy loss by the Texan troops A hand-to-hand encounter ensued, which the Texans, few and feeble, were unable to sustain, and but six of their devoted band remained. Among this number was the famous Davy Crockett, who, with the others, surrendered, under promise of protection; but when they were taken before Santa Ana were, upon his command, instantly cut to pieces, Crockett having been stabbed by a dozen swords. Other barbarities were committed, such as collecting the bodies of the slain in the centre of the Alamo, and, after horribly mutilating the remains, burning them. Only three persons, a woman, a child, and a servant, were spared. A few weeks after Santa Ana was routed with immense loss, and himself captured in the battle of San Jacinto, where the Texans raised the war cry, "Remember the Alamo!" It is estimated that during the siege of Fort Alamo the Mexican losses aggregated over 1,600 men. For many years, indeed until the close of the Mexican War, the Texans only needed to be roused to deeds of valor by the recollection of the massacre at the Alamo, and dearly did the neighboring republic pay for the butchery by Santa Ana and his forces.

ALASKA

Alaska, an unorganized Territory of the United States, formerly known as "Russian America"; occupying the region of the extreme northwestern portion of North America; lying north of the parallel of lat. 50° 40′ N., and west of the meridian of long. 140° W.; also including many islands lying off the coast; area, land and water surface, 1900, 590,884 square miles; population, according to revised census report of 1890, 32,052; population, according to 1900 census, 63,592; seat of administration, Sitka. The Russians acquired possession of this Territory by right of discovery by Vitus Bering, in 1741. He discovered the crowning peak of the Alaska mountains, Mount St. Elias, on July 18. That mountain rises to a height of

18,024 feet above the sea. Other notable altitudes, as ascertained by the United States Meteorological Survey and announced in 1900, are: Blackburn Mountain, 12,500 feet; Black Mountain, 12,500 feet; Cook Mountain, 13,750 feet; Crillon Mountain, 15,900 feet; Drum Mountain, 13,300 feet; Fairweather Mountain, 15,292 feet; Hayes Mountain, 14,500 feet; Iliamna Peak, 12,066 feet; Kimball Mountain, 10,000 feet; Laperouse Mountain, 10,750 feet; Lituya Mountain, 11,852 feet; Mount McKinley, 20,464 feet; Sanford Mountain, 14,000 feet; Seattle Mountain, 10,000 feet; Tillman Mountain, 13,300 feet; Vancouver Mountain, 15,666 feet; and Wrangel Mountain, 17,500 feet.

The entire coast-line measures over 4,000 miles, taking into account the smaller indentations. The climate in some parts is most agreeable. In the interior are numerous lakes. Its valleys are fertile; its streams abound with fish and its forests with game; and its islands have afforded the most extensive and richest fur-seal fishing in the world. Sitka, or New Archangel, the capital of Alaska, is the oldest settlement. It was founded by Russian fur-traders in the nineteenth century. The country was a sort of independent province, under the rule of the Russian-American Fur Company, to whom it was granted by the Emperor Paul in 1799. It was invested with the exclusive right of hunting and fishing in the American waters of the Czar. The charter of the company expired in 1867, when the government declined to renew it. In 1865–67 the country was explored by a scientific corps sent out by the United States to select a route for the Russo-American telegraph line—a project which was abandoned in consequence of the successful laying of the Atlantic cable. Early in 1867 negotiations were begun for the purchase of the Territory, and a treaty to that effect was completed by the exchange of ratifications at Washington, D. C., on June 20, 1867. The price paid was $7,200,000. In October Gen. Lovell H. Rousseau, a commissioner for the purpose, formally took possession of the region. The Territory remained under military government till 1884, when a district government was established and a land office opened. This form of administration proved adequate till the remarkable discoveries of gold in the neighborhood of the Klondike and Yukon rivers, in 1897, attracted thousands of miners to those regions, and soon made necessary larger means of communication. A number of bills were introduced into Congress for the purpose of providing the Territory with the form of government prescribed for the other Territories; but up to the time of writing the only movements in this direction were the extension of a number of laws of Oregon to the Territory; a gradual increase in the number of executive officers; and the creation by the President, in 1900, of a new military department comprising the entire Territory.

While it was long believed that the Territory possessed vast riches in minerals, the chief industries were those connected with sealing and salmon-fisheries till about 1895. In that year the United States government organized the first expedition to make a thorough investigation of the mineral properties. The geological survey has since been continued with most fruitful results, and early in 1900 the Director of the Survey completed plans for thorough surveys and explorations by both geological and topographical experts, especially to supplement the important work of his bureau in 1898, and to acquire a fuller knowledge of the remarkable Cape Nome district and its extension in the Seward Peninsula. This work was expected to occupy several years.

As a result of explorations prior to 1900, mining operations on a large scale were undertaken, first in the neighborhood of the boundary-line between the United States and the British possessions, and then, as other fields were disclosed, along the coast section and on some of the near-by islands. During the season of 1899 the last-mentioned region gave indications of outrivalling the famous Klondike and Yukon fields. The rush of miners to the interior fields, and the indiscriminate staking of claims, soon led to a conflict between the American and Canadian miners concerning the boundary-line. Both parties claimed territorial rights to the richest fields then known, and to avoid a state of anarchy that seemed imminent, the United States and the Canadian authorities undertook, first, a separate, and then a joint, survey of the region in dis-

pute. Each party naturally claimed more territory than the other was willing to concede, and, as a result, the delimitation of the boundary was made one of the subjects for determination by the ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*) appointed in 1898 for the purpose of negotiating a plan for the settlement of all matters in controversy between the United States and Canada. The commission, after several sessions in Canada and the United States, failed to reach an agreement on the matters submitted to it, and in 1899 a *modus vivendi* was signed by the representatives of both governments. This agreement fixed the boundary provisionally, and went into operation on Oct. 20. Under the agreement no part of its territory was surrendered by the United States, and none of the rights of either government were prejudiced by it.

Modus Vivendi of 1899.—The following is the text of the agreement:

It is hereby agreed between the governments of the United States and Great Britain that the boundary-line between Canada and the Territory of Alaska, in the region about the head of Lynn Canal, shall be provisionally fixed, without prejudice to the claims of either party in the permanent adjustment of the international boundary, as follows:

In the region of the Dalton Trail, a line beginning at the peak west of Porcupine Creek, marked on the map No. 10 of the United States Commission, Dec. 31, 1895, and on sheet No. 18 of the British Commission, Dec. 31, 1895, with the number 6,500; thence running to the Klehini (or Klaheela) River in the direction of the peak north of that river, marked 5,020 on the aforesaid United States map and 5,025 on the aforesaid British map; thence following the high or right bank of the said Klehini River to the junction thereof with the Chilkat River, a mile and a half, more or less, north of Klukwan—provided that persons proceeding to or from Porcupine Creek shall be freely permitted to follow the trail between the said creek and the said junction of the rivers, into and across the Territory on the Canadian side of the temporary line wherever the trail crosses to such side, and subject to such reasonable regulations for the protection of the revenue as the Canadian government may prescribe, to carry with them over such part or parts of the trail between the said points as may lie on the Canadian side of the temporary line such goods and articles as they desire, without being required to pay any customs duties on such goods and articles; and from said junction to the summit of the peak east of the Chilkat River, marked on the aforesaid map No. 10 of the United States Commission with the number 5,410 and on the map No. 17 of the aforesaid British Commission with the number 5,490.

On the Dyea and Skagway trails, the summits of the Chilkoot and White passes.

It is understood, as formerly set forth in communications of the Department of State of the United States, that the citizens or subjects of either power found by this arrangement within the temporary jurisdiction of the other shall suffer no diminution of the rights and privileges which they now enjoy.

The government of the United States will at once appoint an officer or officers, in conjunction with an officer or officers to be named by the government of her Britannic Majesty, to mark the temporary line agreed upon by erection of posts, stakes, or other appropriate temporary marks.

Alaska in Transition.—After the United States obtained possession of the Territory the sealing industry was for several years prosecuted with a vigor that led to such a decrease in the number of seals that the government was obliged to enact stringent laws for the conservation of the seals, in order to check the indiscriminate slaughter and prevent the total destruction of the industry. These laws, however, have been constantly violated, with the result that the fur-seal has been nearly exterminated in these waters. Some compensation for this loss has been found in a remarkable increase in the supply of food fishes.

Large as was the knowledge of Alaska and its manifold interests and resources that had been acquired up to 1900, much of its vast expanse remained practically an unknown region, depending upon the government surveys then in progress and

the resistless pushing forward of gold-hunters for the disclosure of new wonders and material attractions. The entire region on both sides of the boundary-line was in a transition state, and both the United States and the Canadian governments, aided by commercial and religious organizations, were pushing forward, as rapidly as the face of the country would permit, the advantages of civilization hitherto unknown in that bleak region. Early in 1898 an aërial railway was constructed over the Chilkoot Pass to Lake Linderman, a unique enterprise that shortened the time between tidewater and the headwaters of the Yukon River from a month to a day, and removed the perils and hardships of former travels. At the end of that year the first section of the first railroad built in Alaska was completed. This was the White Pass and Yukon Railroad, projected to extend from Skagway to Fort Selkirk. The section ended at Summit, the highest point of the divide. The road was completed through to Lake Bennett in 1899. At the same time the Canadian government had selected five routes for railways in the Yukon region, which it was thought might be provided with sea-coast outlets in the territory of the United States.

After the failure of the ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*) to settle the boundary contention, a special commission was appointed under a treaty signed in Washington, D. C., Jan. 24, 1903. This body assembled in London on Sept. 3, following, heard final arguments on October 9, reached a decision on Oct. 17, and made its award Oct. 20, granting to the United States all of its contentions excepting that for the Portland Canal, which was given to Canada. The award deprived Canada of access to the sea over a long stretch of coast-line, and of a free passage up the Lynn Canal to the Yukon. See UNITED STATES—ALASKA, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF THE TERRITORY.

MILITARY GOVERNOR.

Gen. Lovell H. Rousseau.....1867 —

CIVIL GOVERNORS.

John H. Kinkead.....1884-85
Alfred P. Swineford.....1885-89
Lyman E. Knapp.....1889-93
James Sheakley 1893-97
John G. Brady.....1897-1904

Alaskan Boundary, THE. PROF. J. B. MOORE (*q. v.*) contributes the following discussion of the conflicting claims of the United States and Canada in relation to the boundary-line.

In his message of Dec. 2, 1872, President Grant, referring to the settlement of the San Juan Water Boundary, remarked that this award left us, "for the first time in the history of the United States as a nation, without a question of disputed boundary between our territory and the possessions of Great Britain on this continent." In making this statement, President Grant was not unmindful of the fact that the boundary between the British possessions and Alaska, as defined in the treaty between Great Britain and Russia of 1825, had not been surveyed and marked. No dispute in regard to this line had then arisen; and, with a view to prevent the occurrence of any, he made the following recommendation:

"Experience of the difficulties attending the determination of our admitted line of boundary, after the occupation of the Territory and its settlement by those owing allegiance to the respective governments, points to the importance of establishing, by natural objects or other monuments, the actual line between the territory acquired by purchase from Russia and the adjoining possessions of her Britannic Majesty. The region is now so sparsely occupied that no conflicting interests of individuals or of jurisdiction are likely to interfere to the delay or embarrassment of the actual location of the line. If deferred until population shall enter and occupy the Territory, some trivial contest of neighbors may again array the two governments in antagonism. I therefore recommend the appointment of a commission, to act jointly with one that may be appointed on the part of Great Britain, to determine the line between our Territory of Alaska and the coterminous possessions of Great Britain."

By correspondence published in the Canadian Sessional Papers, this recommendation appears to have been inspired by representations, originating with the government of Canada, and communicated through the British minister at Wash-

ington, as to the desirableness of definitely marking the boundary. No action upon the recommendation was taken; but an estimate then made by United States officials as to the probable cost and duration of the task of surveying and marking the line as laid down in the treaty placed the cost at about $1,500,000 and the time at nine years for field operations and at least an additional year for office work.

In January, 1886, the minister of the United States in London, acting under instructions, proposed the appointment of a joint commission, which should designate and establish the boundary-line, or else report such data as might afford a basis for its establishment by a new treaty. The Dominion government, to whom this proposal was referred, expressed the opinion that a preliminary survey was "preferable to a formally constituted joint commission," and suggested that such a survey "would enable the two governments to establish a satisfactory basis for the delimitation of the boundary, and demonstrate whether the conditions of the convention of 1825 are applicable to the now more or less known features of the country."

Early in 1888 several informal conferences were held in Washington between Prof. W. H. Dall, of the United States Geological Survey, and Dr. George M. Dawson, of Canada, for the purpose of discussing the boundary and elucidating, so far as the information then in existence enabled them to do, the questions which might be involved in it. The result of these conferences was communicated to Congress.

A further step was taken in the convention between the United States and Great Britain of July 22, 1892, by which it was agreed that a coincident or joint survey should be made "with a view to ascertainment of the facts and data necessary to the permanent delimitation of the said boundary-line in accordance with the spirit and intent of the existing treaties in regard to it between Great Britain and Russia and between the United States and Russia." The time for the report of the commissioners under this stipulation was extended by the supplemental convention of Feb. 3, 1894, to Dec. 31, 1895. Joint surveys and a joint report were made, but no recommendations as to the boundary.

By the protocol of May, 1898, it was agreed that the joint international commission to be organized thereunder should endeavor to adopt "provisions for the delimitation and establishment of the Alaska-Canadian boundary by legal and scientific experts if the commission shall so decide, or otherwise." Under this clause, it is understood that the commission has failed to reach an agreement, and the question still remains open. It is our purpose to disclose, in general outlines, in what the dispute consists.

By a ukase dated July 8, 1799, the Emperor Paul I. of Russia, having in view the benefits resulting to his empire from the hunting and trading carried on by Russian subjects "in the northeastern seas and along the coasts of America," conceded to the Russian-American Company the right to "have the use of all hunting-grounds and establishments now [then] existing on the northeastern (*sic*) coast of America, from the . . . 55th degree [of north latitude] to Bering Strait," as well as the right "to make new discoveries not only north of the fifty-fifth degree," but farther to the south, and "to occupy the new lands discovered, as Russian possessions," if they were not previously occupied by or dependent upon another nation.

Still further privileges were granted to the Russian-American Company by the famous ukase issued by the Emperor Alexander, Sept. 7, 1821, by which the pursuit of commerce, whaling and fishing, and of all other industry, on all islands, ports, and gulfs, "including the whole of the northwest coast of America, beginning from Bering Strait to the 51st degree of northern latitude," was exclusively granted to Russian subjects, and foreign vessels, except in case of distress, were forbidden "not only to land on the coasts and islands belonging to Russia, as stated above, but also to approach them within less than 100 Italian miles."

This extension by Russia of her claim of dominion on the northwest coast of America from the 55th parallel of north latitude down to the 51st, coupled with the new claim of exclusive marine jurisdiction of 100 Italian miles

along the coast, called forth protests both from the United States and from Great Britain. Both these powers claimed territory north of the 51st parallel, as well as the right freely to navigate the ocean and to fish and trade with the natives on unoccupied coasts. Russia met their protests with an offer of negotiation.

This offer was accepted. In the negotiations which ensued, Russia was represented by Count Nesselrode, minister for foreign affairs, and M. Poletica. Great Britain was represented first by Sir Charles Bagot, and then by Stratford Canning; the United States by Henry Middleton. The United States and Great Britain at one time entertained the intention of acting jointly, but, finding that their territorial claims were to some extent conflicting, they carried on their negotiations with Russia separately.

The negotiations between the United States and Russia ended in a convention, signed at St. Petersburg, April 17, 1824, which will hereafter be referred to as the convention of 1824. As to the territorial question, it was agreed that no establishment should be formed by the United States on the northwest coast north of lat. 54° 40′ N., nor by Russia south of that parallel. As to navigation, fishing, and trading, the right of navigation and of fishing in the Pacific Ocean was acknowledged unqualifiedly and in perpetuity; and it was agreed that during a term of ten years the ships of both powers might frequent "the interior Seas, Gulfs, Harbors, and Creeks upon the coast" in question, for the purpose of fishing and trading with the natives. No resort, however, was to be made by citizens of the United States to any point where there was a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor; and a reciprocal rule was to be observed by Russian subjects as to United States establishments. From the commerce permitted by the convention, fire-arms and liquors were excluded.

So far as dominion was concerned, the practical effect of this treaty was to leave it to Great Britain and Russia to divide the territory north of lat. 54° 40′ N., and to the United States and Great Britain to divide that to the south.

Great Britain and Russia settled their maritime and territorial differences by a convention signed at St. Petersburg on Feb. 28, 1825, which will hereafter be referred to as the convention of 1825. This convention defines, in Articles III. and IV., the boundary between Alaska and the British possessions as it exists to-day. The treaty of 1867, ceding Alaska to the United States, describes the eastern limits of the cession by incorporating the definition given in the convention of 1825. This convention was signed only in French, which is therefore the official text; but there accompanies it, in the British publications, an English "translation," which in the main fairly reproduces the original. These texts, so far as they relate to the boundary, are as follows:

"III. La ligne de démarcation entre les Possessions des Hautes Parties Contractantes sur la Côte du Continent et les Iles de l'Amérique Nord Ouest, sera tracée ainsi qu'il suit:—

"A partir du Point le plus méridional de l'Ile dite Prince of Wales, lequel Point se trouve sous la parallèle du 54me degré 40 minutes de latitude Nord, et entre le 131me et le 133me degré de longitude Ouest (Méridien de Greenwich), la dite ligne remontera au Nord le long de la passe dite Portland Channel, jusqu'au Point de la terre ferme où elle atteint le 56me degré de latitude Nord: de ce dernier point la ligne de démarcation suivra la crête des montagnes situées parallèlement à la Côte, jusqu'au point d'intersection du 141me degré de longitude Ouest (même Méridien); et finalement du dit point d'intersection, la même ligne méridienne du 141me degré formera, dans son prolongement jusqu'à la mer Glaciale, la limite entre les Possessions Russes et Britan-

"III. The line of demarcation between the Possessions of the High Contracting Parties upon the Coast of the Continent and the Islands of America to the North-West, shall be drawn in the following manner:

"Commencing from the southernmost point of the Island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes, North Latitude, and between the 131st and 133d Degree of West Longitude (Meridian of Greenwich), the said line shall ascend to the North along the Channel called Portland Channel, as far as the Point of the Continent where it strikes the 56th Degree of North Latitude; from this last mentioned Point the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st Degree of West Longitude (of the same Meridian); and, finally, from the said point of intersection, the said Meridian Line of the 141st Degree, in its prolongation as far as

niques sur le Continent de l'Amérique Nord Ouest.

"IV. Il est entendu, par rapport à la ligne de démarcation déterminée dans l'Article précédent:

"1. Que l'Ile dite Prince of Wales appartiendra toute entière à la Russie:

"2. Que partout où la crête des montagnes qui s'étendent dans une direction parallèle à Côte depuis le 56me degré de latitude Nord au point d'intersection du 141me degré de longitude Ouest, se trouverait à la distance de plus de dix lieues marines de l'Océan, la limite entre les Possessions Britanniques et la lisière de Côte mentionnée ci-dessus comme devant appartenir à la Russie, sera formée par une ligne parallèle aux sinuosités de la Côte, et qui ne pourra jamais en être éloignée que de dix lieues marines."

the Frozen Ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British Possessions on the Continent of America to the North-West.

"IV. With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding Article, it is understood:

"1st. That the Island called Prince of Wales Island shall belong wholly to Russia.

"2d. That wherever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the Coast, from the 56th degree of North Latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of West Longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than ten marine leagues from the Ocean, the limit between the British Possessions and the line of Coast which is to belong to Russia, as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the Coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of ten marine leagues therefrom."

It was further provided (Art. V.) that neither party should form establishments within the limits thus assigned to the other, and, specifically, that British subjects should not form any establishment, "either upon the coast, or upon the border of the continent (*soit sur la côte, soit sur la lisière de terre ferme*) comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions."

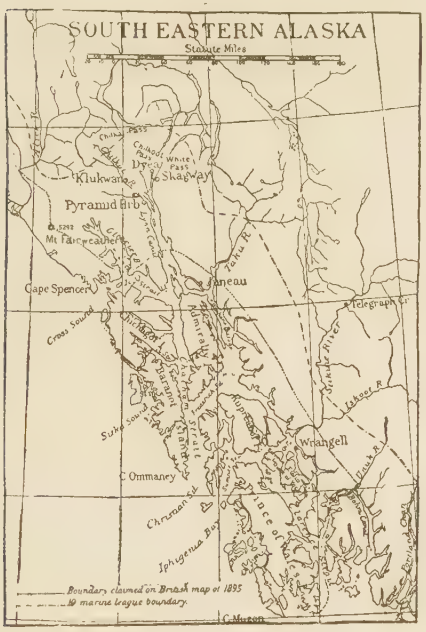
As to navigation, fishing, and trading, the convention of 1825 included substantially the same provisions as that of 1824. The right of navigation and fishing in the Pacific Ocean was acknowledged. For the space of ten years the ships of the two powers were to be at liberty to frequent "the inland Seas, the Gulfs, Havens, and Creeks on the Coast" in question. Permission to land at points where there were establishments was to be obtained from the governor. Trade with the natives in fire-arms and liquors was prohibited. Besides these stipulations, it was agreed (Art. VI.) that British subjects, whether arriving from the ocean or from the interior of the continent, should "forever enjoy the right of navigating freely . . . all the rivers and streams which, in their course towards the Pacific Ocean, may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in Article III. of the present convention"; and that, for the space of ten years, the port of Sitka, or Novo Archangelsk, should be "open to the Commerce and Vessels of British subjects."

An examination of the boundary defined in Articles III. and IV. of the convention of 1825 shows that it is scientifically divisible into two distinct sections, first, the line from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, through Portland Channel and along the summit of the mountains parallel to the coast, to the point of intersection of the 141st meridian of longitude; and, second, the line from this point to the Arctic Ocean. With the latter section, which is merely a meridian line, and as to which the United States and Canadian surveys exhibit no considerable difference, we are not now concerned. The section as to which material differences have arisen is the first.

The principal differences in this quarter are two in number, first, as to what channel is meant by Portland Channel (sometimes called Portland Canal); and, second, as to what is the extent of the line or strip of coast (*le lisière de côte*) which was assigned to Russia. The latter difference, since it is the more complicated, we will consider first.

As has been seen, the easterly limit of the *lisière*, from the point where the line strikes the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude, was to follow "the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast," except that, where this summit should prove to be more than ten marine leagues, or thirty miles, from the ocean, the limit was to be formed "by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of ten marine leagues therefrom." On the part of Canada two theories as to this line have been advanced: (1) that it should follow,

not the actual windings (*sinuosités*) but the general trend of the coast, so as to intersect or cross the headlands of some of the bays and inlets, especially in the Lynn Canal, and give Great Britain one or more ports on tide-water; and (2) that the coast whose windings are to be followed is not the shore of the mainland, but that of the adjacent islands, bordering on the ocean.* The United States, on



the other hand, has maintained that the coast whose windings were to be followed was the coast of the mainland, the design of the convention being to give to Russia the control of the whole of the shore of the mainland, and of the islands, bays, gulfs, and inlets adjacent thereto. In other words, Russia was to have exclusive dominion of tide-water and of a continuous strip of territory bordering upon it, while Great Britain was to have the interior country, with a right of free navigation of streams crossing the Russian territory on their way to the sea.

That this was the design of the convention may be shown, first, by the record of its negotiation.

The principal object on the part of Great Britain was to obtain the withdrawal by Russia of the claim made in the ukase of 1828 to exclusive jurisdiction over the Pacific Ocean—a claim which involved the right to navigate a vast extent of ocean and, incidentally, the right of passage from the Pacific to the Arctic Ocean through Bering Straits. "It is not on our part," declared George Canning, British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, "essentially a negotiation of limits. It is a demand of the repeal of an offensive and unjustifiable arrogation of exclusive jurisdiction over an ocean of unmeasured extent." With a view to facilitate the withdrawal of this pretension, Great Britain proposed a settlement of limits.* The actual geographical features of the territory were to a great extent unknown. Vancouver had navigated and charted the coast, but the interior was unexplored. Back from the shore high mountains were visible, and, after the manner of the early geographers, he drew artistic ranges which follow the windings of the coast, making a continuous barrier between the coast of the mainland and the interior country. It is well known, however, to the negotiators of the convention of 1825 that the mountain ranges might be broken, or that, instead of following closely the windings of the coast, they might extend far inland. Instead, therefore, of attending to geographical details, they adopted general rules, which should be applied whenever the line came to be actually marked.

In settling the limits along the coast the two governments were largely guided by the interests and the representations of certain commercial companies—on the part of Russia, the Russian - American Company, and, on the part of Great Brit-

* On the sketch-map accompanying this article, the Canadian claim is given as shown on the "Map of the Province of British Columbia, compiled by direction of Hon. G. B. Martin, Chief Commissioner of Lands and Works, Victoria, B. C., 1895." This claim would give Dyea, Skagway, Pyramid Harbor, and various other points, and a long stretch of tide-water, to Canada. Canada offered to give up her claims on Dyea and Skagway if the United States would give Pyramid Harbor to her. The United States refused to consider the question.

* G. Canning to Stratford Canning, Dec. 8, 1824.

ain, the Northwest and Hudson's Bay companies—which hunted and traded with natives for furs. The fur trade was then the principal object of value in the estimation of the worth of the regions in question. The British companies, however, had no establishment on the coast now under consideration. Their operations in that quarter were conducted in the interior, and their furs were sent to England through their own territories, and not across the coast involved in the negotiation.

The first definite proposition as to limits was made by Great Britain to Russia in the autumn of 1823. Sir Charles Bagot, then British ambassador at St. Petersburg, was instructed to propose a line drawn east and west along the 57th parallel of north latitude. He went somewhat further, and suggested that Great Britain would "be satisfied to take Cross Sound, lying about the latitude of 57° 30′, as the boundary between the two powers on the coast; and a meridian line drawn from the head of Lynn Canal, as it is laid down in Arrowsmith's last map, ...as the boundary in the interior of the continent." This suggestion was not accepted, and subsequently, acting under instructions, he proposed "a line drawn through Chatham Straits to the head of Lynn Canal, thence northwest to the 140th degree of longitude west of Greenwich, and thence along that degree of longitude to the Polar Sea."

The Russian plenipotentiaries rejected this proposal and submitted a counter-project. By the ukase of 1799, the Russian dominion was assumed to extend to the southward as far as the 55th degree of north latitude. The Russian plenipotentiaries therefore offered to adhere to this limit, with a deflection at the southern extremity of Prince of Wales Island so as to avoid a division of territory, and, for the rest, proposed that the line should "follow Portland Channel up to the mountains which border the coast," thence "ascend along these mountains, parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, as far as the 139th degree of longitude (meridian of London)," and then pursue that meridian indefinitely to the north.

The reasons of the two governments for their respective proposals were fully explained by them. In the early stages of the negotiation the Russian plenipotentiaries intimated that they would require the 55th degree of latitude as their southern boundary. In his instructions to Sir C. Bagot, of Jan. 15, 1824, Mr. George Canning, adverting to the fact that no limit was suggested by the Russian plenipotentiaries to the eastern extension of the parallel, declared that it was essential to guard against the "unfounded pretensions" of Russia in that direction, and for that purpose, whatever the degree of latitude assumed, to assign a definite meridian of longitude as a limit. The 135th meridian northward from the head of "Lynn's Harbor" might suffice. As to "*the mainland southward* of that point," it would be expedient to assign "a limit, say of 50 or 100 miles from the coast, beyond which the Russian posts should not be extended to the eastward. We must not," he continued, "on any account, admit the Russian territory to extend at any point to the Rocky Mountains. By such an admission we should establish a direct and complete interruption between our territory to the southward of that point and that of which we are in possession to the eastward of long. 135° along the course of the Mackenzie River."

The Russian plenipotentiaries explained their object with equal clearness. In a memorandum accompanying their counter-proposal they said: "The principal motive which constrains Russia to insist upon sovereignty over the above-indicated strip of territory (*lisière*) upon the mainland (*terre ferme*) from the Portland Channel to the point of intersection of the 60th degree (latitude) with the 139th degree of longitude, is that, deprived of this territory, the Russian - American Company would have no means of sustaining its establishments, which would then be without any support (*point d'appui*), and could have no solidity." If Great Britain would accept the line proposed by them, the Russian plenipotentiaries declared that their government would grant to British subjects "the free navigation of all the rivers which empty into the ocean through the said *lisière*," and open the port of Novo Archangelsk to their trade and vessels.

To this counter-proposal Sir C. Bagot objected that it "would deprive his Britannic Majesty of sovereignty over all the inlets and small bays lying between lat. 56° and 54° 45′, whereof several (as there is every reason to believe) communicated directly with the establishments of the Hudson Bay Company, and are consequently of essential importance to its commerce." He offered, however, to accept a line traced from the west towards the east "along the middle of the channel which separates Prince of Wales and Duke of York islands from all the islands situated to the north of the said islands until it touches the mainland." Subsequently he modified this offer by proposing that the line be drawn "from the southern extremity of the strait called 'Duke of Clarence's Sound,' through the middle of this strait to the middle of the strait which separates Prince of Wales and Duke of York islands" from the islands to the north, and thence eastwardly to the mainland, thus giving Prince of Wales Island to Russia.

These proposals the Russian plenipotentiaries declined. They declared that "the possession of Prince of Wales Island without a slice (portion) of territory upon the coast situated in front of that island could be of no utility whatever to Russia," since any establishment founded upon it would then "find itself, as it were, flanked by the English establishments on the mainland and completely at the mercy of the latter." They adhered to Portland Channel; but, as to the eastern boundary of the *lisière*, they offered to extend it "along the mountains which follow the sinuosities of the coast as far as Mount Elias," and then to run the line along the 140th meridian of longitude instead of the 139th. Said Count Nesselrode, in an instruction to Count Lieven, Russian ambassador at London, April 17, 1824:

"This proposal will assure to us merely a narrow strip of territory (*lisière*) upon the coast itself, and will leave the English establishments all needful room for increase and extension.... We limit our demands to a mere strip of the continent, and . . . we guarantee the free navigation of the rivers and announce the opening of the port of Novo Archangelsk. Russia cannot stretch her concessions farther. She will make no others....It cannot be reiterated with sufficient positiveness that, according to the most recent charts, England possesses no establishment either up to the latitude of Portland Channel or on the shore of the ocean itself; and Russia, when she insists on preserving a moderate expanse of the mainland (*terre ferme*) only insists in reality upon the means of utilizing—we might better say of not losing—the surrounding islands."

The British cabinet, with the concurrence of the Hudson Bay Company, decided to accept the Russian proposal, with a limitation of the distance from the coast at which the line along the mountains should run, and the selection of a meridian of longitude north of Mount St. Elias farther to the west than the 140th. In this way Russia would secure her strip of territory on the mainland and Great Britain prevent the intersection of her interior possessions and communications. Great Britain accordingly proposed that the line should ascend northerly along Portland Channel "till it strikes the coast of the continent lying in the 56th degree of north latitude," and that it should thence be carried "along the coast, in a direction parallel to its windings, and at or within the seaward base of the mountains by which it is bounded," provided that it should not extend more than a certain number of marine leagues inland, whatever the distance of the mountains might be. Experience had shown, said the British government, that mountains which were assumed as lines of boundary were sometimes incorrectly laid down, and that it was "therefore necessary that some other security should be taken that the line of demarcation to be drawn parallel with the coast, as far as Mount St. Elias, is not carried too far inland." It might be limited to 10 leagues or less.*

* G. Canning to Sir C. Bagot, July 12, 1824. Were there room for doubt as to what these proposals and counter-proposals meant, it might be worth while specially to note the phrase "seaward base of the mountains," as well as the suggestion made by the British government that no forts should be established or fortifications erected by either party "on the summit or in the passes of the mountains" in case the boundary should follow their summit and not their seaward base. (G. Canning to Sir C. Bagot, July 24, 1824.)

The Russian government, in response to the last British proposition, proposed that the *lisière*, instead of being bounded by the summit of the mountains, except where it exceeded a certain distance from the coast, should "not be wider on the continent than 10 marine leagues from the shore of the sea." In other words, Russia wanted either the crest of the mountains, or else a line 10 leagues from the coast, as the boundary all the way. Great Britain objected to this as a withdrawal of the limits of the *lisière* which the Russians were themselves the first to propose, viz., "the summit of the mountains, which run parallel to the coast, and which appear, according to the map, to follow all its sinuosities, and to substitute generally that which we only suggested as a connection of their first proposition."* Accordingly, Mr. Stratford Canning, who had lately been appointed a plenipotentiary to conclude the convention, proposed that the line should follow "the crest of the mountains in a direction parallel to the coast," but that, if the crest should be found anywhere to be more than 10 leagues from the sea, the boundary should there be "a line parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, so that the line of demarcation shall not be anywhere more than 10 leagues from the coast."

This proposal was accepted as a compromise, and the treaty was drawn up and signed in conformity with it. Until a recent period the line, as it was then understood by both governments, remained unquestioned. It appeared on all the maps, including those published in England, as the United States now maintains it, following the sinuosities of the coast and running along the heads of the inlets, including the Lynn Canal, and giving to Russia an unbroken strip of the mainland up to Mount St. Elias.

But more significant, perhaps, than any map, is the fact that the greater portion of the strip of mainland in question was for many years after 1839 leased, at an annual rental, by the Hudson Bay Company. The lease embraced the coast (exclusive of islands) and the interior country belonging to Russia, situated between Cape Spencer, on Cross Sound, and lat. 54° 40′, or thereabout, including "the whole mainland coast and interior country belonging to Russia," eastward and southward of an imaginary line drawn from Cape Spencer to Mount Fairweather. By an agreement between the Hudson Bay and Russian-American companies, which received the sanction of both governments, this strip of territory was exempted from molestation during the Crimean War.*

As to the southern limit of the strip in question, a line through Portland Channel, as now maintained by the United States, continued to be the uncontested boundary till about 1873, when Canadian writers began to suggest that the line should run through Behm Canal, or by some other way than Portland Channel, (1) because, while the line is required by the treaty to "ascend to the north" from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, it must first run to the east in order to enter Portland Channel, and (2) because the head of Portland Channel does not reach the 56th degree of north latitude. These suggestions, besides disregarding the historical and geographical evidence, including that of the British Admiralty charts, presuppose a minuteness and accuracy of description which the negotiators did not essay. When the line, commencing at the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, was required to "ascend to the north" till it should strike the 56th degree on the continent, the general direction and objective of the boundary obviously was intended to be given. This has not been uncommon in descriptions of boundary. An actual due north line from the point in question would have cut the island. Nor is the argument from a hiatus between the head of Portland Channel and

Both these phrases obviously referred to mountains on the mainland.

* G. Canning to S. Canning, Dec. 8, 1824.

* Sir George Simpson, Governor of Hudson Bay Territory and a director of Hudson Bay Company, in his account of a trip around the world (Lea & Blanchard, Philadelphia, 1847, Part 1, p. 124), referring to the lease, said: "Russia, as the reader is of course aware, possesses on the mainland between lat. 54° 40′ and lat. 60° only a strip, never exceeding 30 miles in depth; and this strip, in the absence of such an arrangement as has just been mentioned (the aforesaid lease), renders the interior comparatively useless to England."

the 56th degree any stronger. The "line," after ascending "Portland Channel, as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude," is required from "this last-mentioned point" to follow "the summit of the mountains." If this were intended as a complete description, covering every foot or mile of the boundary, and if the "it" of the treaty were intended to refer to the channel and not to the line, then Portland Channel evidently was supposed to have performed the remarkable feat of climbing to the summit of the mountains. But, obviously, it was the "line" which was to "strike" the 56th parallel and reach the summit of the mountains.

The drawing of the line through Portland Channel, whose outlet into the sea appeared on the map in the same latitude as the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, was part of the plan of allowing to Russia, in return for her abandonment of abnormal jurisdictional claims and her concessions in respect of trade, a strip of territory on the mainland as a barrier between her islands and the British possessions in the interior. We have seen how the representatives of Great Britain successively proposed as the southern boundary the line of 57° 30′, then a line through "Chatham Straits to the head of Lynn Canal," then a line drawn from west to east "through the middle of the channel which separates the islands of Prince of Wales and Duke of York from all the islands to the north" till it should touch the mainland, and then a line drawn northward through Clarence Strait and thence eastward to the mainland through the strait separating Prince of Wales and Duke of York islands from the islands to the north, and how they finally accepted the line through Portland Channel, on which Russia, for the purpose of preserving for her islands a protective barrier on the coast of the mainland, had firmly and finally insisted.

But, while we have shown how the general principles of the boundary were settled, it yet remains to adjust the line and mark it. For this purpose it is conceded that something more than the general descriptions of the treaty is requisite. To meet this defect, various plans have been suggested, and there may be room for the adjustment of common interests. The discovery of gold in the Klondike region has intensified the desire of Canada for an outlet on Lynn Canal. This desire, if considered upon grounds of mutual interest and convenience, rather than of treaty right, is worthy of attention, since the coast must profit by the development of the interior. It has been suggested that a lease be granted of a narrow strip of land in that quarter, as an outlet on the sea. The same object might, perhaps, be attained by assimilating one or more of the portages, for instance, that by way of the Chilkoot Pass, the principal Klondike route, to a stream of water and treating it as an international highway. By Article II. of the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, it was stipulated that "all the water communications and all the usual portages along the line [of boundary] from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, and also Grand Portage, from the shore of Lake Superior to the Pigeon River, as now actually used, shall be free and open to the use of the citizens and subjects of both countries." But whatever plan may be adopted, it is obvious that, if the end can be attained without the sacrifice of clear national rights, the boundary should not be left unsettled, but should, in the interest of trade and industry, of the administration of justice, and of international amity, be finally adjusted and marked.

Albans, St. See St. Albans; Vermont.

Albany, city and capital of the State of New York; the oldest existing town within the domain of the original thirteen States; was first settled by Dutch traders in 1614, who built a trading-house on Castle Island, a little below the site of Albany, and eight years afterwards Fort Orange was built on that site. The settlement was called Fort Orange at first, then Beverswyck; and after the Province of New Netherland passed into the possession of the English it was called Albany, the second title of Duke James, afterwards James II. of England. Albany is yet full of the descendants of its early settlers, and has a large present importance by reason of its trade relations with the Western and Southern States, promoted by its exceptional shipping facilities by river, rail-

road, and canal. In 1890 the population was 94,923; in 1900, 94,151.

Albany is especially noted in history because of the colonial conventions held there. The following is a synopsis of their most important transactions:

First Colonial Convention.—Thoroughly alarmed by the opening hostilities of the French and Indians on the frontiers, the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut sent commissioners to Albany to hold a conference with the chiefs of the Five Nations, all of whom, excepting the Mohawks, had renewed their covenant of friendship with the English. This covenant was renewed June 27, 1689, previous to the arrival of Count Frontenac in Canada. The commissioners held the conference in September following. They tried to persuade the Five Nations to engage in the war against the Eastern Indians. They would not agree to do so, but ratified the existing friendship with the English colonies. "We promise," they said, "to preserve the chain inviolably, and wish that the sun may always shine in peace over all our heads that are comprehended in the chain."

Second Colonial Convention.—In the summer of 1748, when news of the preliminary treaty of peace reached the colonies, a convention or congress of colonial governors was called at Albany for a twofold purpose: (1) to secure a colonial revenue, and (2) to strengthen the bond of friendship between the Six Nations and their neighbors in the West, and the English. Only Governors Clinton and Shirley, two able commissioners from Massachusetts, and one (William Bull) from South Carolina, were present. With the latter came the grand sachem and some chiefs of the Catawbas, a nation which had long waged war with the Iroquois. There was an immense number of the Six Nations present. The royal governors failed to gain anything for themselves in the way of a revenue, but satisfactory arrangements with the Indians, including the tribes along the southern borders of Lake Erie, were made. At that conference the commissioners from Massachusetts (Andrew Oliver and Thomas Hutchinson) presented a memorial for adoption, praying the King so far to interpose as that, while the French remained in Canada, the more southern colonies, which were not immediately exposed to hostilities, might be obliged to contribute in a just proportion towards the expense of protecting the inland portions of New York and New England. Clinton and Shirley signed and approved of the memorial, which was sent with it to the Board of Trade and Plantations.

Third Colonial Convention.—The kindly attitude manifested towards the French by the Six Nations excited the jealousy and alarm of the English, especially of Governor Clinton, of New York. As yet, the Iroquois had never recognized the claim of the English to dominion over their land, and they were free to act as they pleased. Clinton called a convention of representatives of the several English-American colonies at Albany, and invited the Six Nations to send representatives to meet with them. Only Massachusetts, Connecticut, and South Carolina chose to incur the expense. Delegates from these colonies met the chiefs of the Six Nations (July 5, 1751) and made a treaty of friendship. The "King" of the Catawbas and several chiefs accompanied the South Carolina delegate (William Bull), and a peace between that Southern nation and the Iroquois was settled at the same time.

Fourth Colonial Convention.—There were indications that the Six Nations, influenced by French emissaries, were becoming alienated from the English. The colonists were uneasy, and the British government, acting upon the advice of the royal governors in America, sent a circular letter to all the colonial assemblies, proposing the holding of a convention at Albany, to be composed of committees from the several legislatures and representatives of the Six Nations. Seven of the assemblies responded, and on June 19, 1754, twenty-five delegates assembled in the old City Hall at Albany. James De Lancey, acting governor of New York, presided, and he was authorized by the Virginia legislature to represent that colony in the convention. The chiefs of the Six Nations were there in great numbers, of whom "King Hendrick," of the Mohawks, was leader. To the Indians De Lancey first spoke, and Hendrick responded in words of bitter reproof of the English for their neglect of preparations for danger.

"Look at the French," he said; "they are men; they are fortifying everywhere; but, we are ashamed to say it, you are like women, bare and open, without any fortifications. It is but one step from Canada hither, and the French may easily come and turn you out-of-doors." But the business with the Six Nations was closed amicably and satisfactorily by a treaty of friendship. The Massachusetts delegation was authorized to propose a measure quite as important as a treaty with the Indians. It was an invitation for the convention to consider the question whether a union of the colonies for mutual defence was not desirable; and they were empowered to agree to articles of union or confederation. The proposition was favorably received, and a committee, composed of one delegate from each colony, was appointed to draw up a plan. The fertile brain of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, a delegate from Pennsylvania, had conceived a plan before he went to the convention. It was reported by the committee and adopted by the convention, the Connecticut delegates alone dissenting. It proposed a grand council of forty-eight members, to be chosen by the several assemblies, the representatives of each colony to be, in number, in proportion to the contribution of each to the general treasury. No colony was to have more than seven or less than two members. This congress was to choose its own speaker and have the general management of all civil and military affairs, and to enact general laws in conformity to the British Constitution. It proposed to have a president-general, appointed and paid by the crown, who should have a negative or veto power on all acts of the congress, and to have, with the advice and consent of the congress, the appointment of all military officers, and the entire management of Indian affairs; the civil officers to be appointed by the congress with the approval of the president-general. This plan of government bore a strong resemblance to our national Constitution, which Franklin assisted in framing more than thirty years afterwards. This plan was submitted to the Lords of Trade and Plantations. They did not approve of it, nor recommend it to the King for consideration. They thought there was too much *democracy* in it. The assemblies did not favor it, because they thought there was too much *prerogative* in it. So it was rejected.

Albany Plan of Union, 1754. See ALBANY (*Fourth Colonial Convention*).

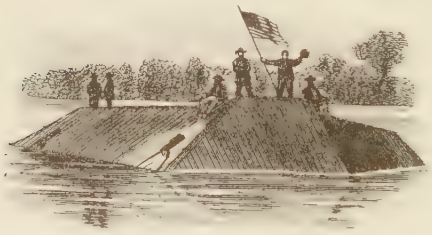
Albany Regency, a name popularly given to a few active and able New York men of the Democratic party, between 1820 and 1854, who, in a great degree, controlled the action of their party in the State and in the Union. Among the leading members were Martin Van Buren, William L. Marcy, Silas Wright, Edwin Croswell, Benjamin F. Butler, Azariah C. Flagg, and Dean Richmond. See HUNKERS.

Albay, the name of a province in the extreme southeastern part of the island of Luzon, Philippines; noted as being the richest hemp-growing district on the island. In January, 1900, in order to put a stop to the surreptitious shipping of the products of the hemp-growing sections of the archipelago, a new military district was created by the United States authorities, comprising both this province and Catanduanes Island, situated directly north of Logonoy Bay. Brig.-Gen. William A. Kobbé, U. S. V., was appointed governor of this district and given tentative authority also over Samar and Leyte islands. He had several encounters with the Filipino insurgents before he secured control of his new district, and immediately after establishing his authority he formally occupied and opened to trade the various hemp ports under his jurisdiction, which was subsequently extended over the entire hemp-growing district. Albay is also the principal town and port of the province.

Albemarle Sound, BATTLE IN. In the Civil War, the Confederate general Hoke, after capturing Plymouth, proceeded to Newbern and demanded its surrender. The commander of the *Albemarle*, a powerful "ram," started out on Albemarle Sound to assist Hoke, when his vessel encountered (May 5, 1864) the *Sassacus*, Lieut.-Com. F. A. Rose, one of Capt. Melancton Smith's blockading squadron in the sound. The *Albemarle* was heavily armed with Brooks and Whitworth guns. After a brief cannonade the *Sassacus* struck the monster a blow which pushed it partly under water and nearly sank it. When the "ram" recovered, the two ves-

sels hurled 100-lb. shot at each other at a distance of a few paces. Most of those from the *Sassacus* glanced off from the *Albemarle* like hail from granite. Three of the shots from the *Sassacus* entered a part of the "ram" with destructive effect, and at the same moment the *Albemarle* sent a 100-lb. Brooks bolt through one of the boilers of the *Sassacus*, killing three men and wounding six. The vessel was filled with scalding steam and was unmanageable for a few minutes. When the smoke and vapor passed away, the *Albemarle* was seen moving towards Plymouth, firing as she fled. The *Sassacus* slowly followed, but finally desisted for want of steam. Hoke fell back from Newbern.

Albemarle, THE, a powerful Confederate iron-clad vessel that patrolled the waters off the coast of North Carolina dur-



RAM ALBEMARLE.

ing a part of the Civil War. Late in October, 1864, Lieut. W. B. Cushing, a daring young officer of the United States navy, undertook to destroy it. It was lying at Plymouth, behind a barricade of logs 30 feet in width. With a small steam-launch equipped as a torpedo-boat, Cushing moved in towards Plymouth on a dark night (Oct. 27), with a crew of thirteen officers and men, part of whom had volunteered for this service. The launch had a cutter in tow. They were within 20 yards of the "ram" before they were discovered, when its pickets began firing. In the face of a severe discharge of musketry, Cushing pressed to the attack. He drove his launch far into the log barricade, lowered his torpedo boom, and drove it directly under the overhang of the "ram." The mine was exploded, and at the same moment one of the guns of the *Albemarle* hurled a heavy bolt that went crashing through and destroying the launch. Cushing and his companions leaped into the water, but only one besides the commander escaped drowning or capture. Cushing swam ashore, crept into a swamp, and was found and cared for by some negroes. The torpedo had destroyed the *Albemarle*, and she settled down in the mud in Plymouth Harbor. Plymouth was recaptured (Oct. 31) by a squadron under Commodore Macomb, with some prisoners and valuable stores. See CUSHING, WILLIAM BARKER.

Albert Edward, PRINCE OF WALES. See EDWARD VII.

Albion, NEW. The name given by SIR FRANCIS DRAKE (*q. v.*) to CALIFORNIA (*q. v.*) when he took possession in 1577.

Albright, JACOB, clergyman; born near Pottstown, Pa., May 1, 1759. In youth he was a tile-burner, but entered the Methodist ministry in 1790. He made many converts, almost exclusively among the Germans, and in 1800 a separate Church organization was formed for them, Albright becoming their first presiding elder. He was appointed bishop in 1807. His denomination is known as the EVANGELICAL ASSOCIATION (*q. v.*). He died in 1808.

Alcott, AMOS BRONSON, educator; born in Wolcott, Conn., Nov. 29, 1799. He became a successful teacher of an infant school in his native State. Removing to Boston, he soon became conspicuous as a teacher of the very young. He finally settled in Concord, Mass., where he studied natural theology and the best methods for producing reforms in diet, education, and civil and social institutions. By invitation, he went to England in 1842, to teach at "Alcott House," a name given to a school at Ham, near London. Returning to America, with two English friends, he attempted the founding of a new community, calling the farm "Fruit Lands." It was a failure, and in 1840 he again went to Concord, where he afterwards resided, living the life of a peripatetic philosopher, conversing in cities and in villages, wherever invited, on divinity, human nature, ethics, as well as on a great variety of practical questions. He was one of the founders of the school of transcendentalists in New England, and after returning to Concord became dean of the famous Concord School of Philosophy. He died March 4, 1888.

Alcott, LOUISA MAY, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 29, 1832; daughter of Amos Bronson Alcott. In 1862 she volunteered as a nurse, and for months labored in the military hospitals. In 1868 she published *Little Women,* which almost immediately made her famous. Her other works are, *Flower Fables, or Fairy Tales; Hospital Sketches; An Old-Fashioned Girl;* a series called *Aunt Jo's Scrap Bag,* containing *My Boys, Shawl Straps, Cupid and Chow-Chow, My Girls, Jimmy's Cruise in the Pinafore,* and *An Old-Fashioned Thanksgiving; Work, a Story of Experience; Eight Cousins; Rose in Bloom; Silver Pitchers; Under the Lilacs; Jack and Gill; Moods; Proverb Stories; Spinning-Wheel Stories; Lulu's Library,* etc. She died in Boston, Mass., March 6, 1888.

Alden, HENRY MILLS, editor; born in Mount Tabor, Vt., Nov. 11, 1836; was graduated at Williams College in 1857, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1860. In the winter of 1863–64 he delivered before the Lowell Institute of Boston a series of twelve lectures on *The Structure of Paganism;* 1863–69 he was managing editor of *Harper's Weekly,* and in 1869 became editor of *Harper's Magazine.* He is the author of *The Ancient Lady of Sorrow,* a poem; *God in His World; A Study of Death;* and (with A. H. Guernsey) of *Harper's Pictorial History of the Great Rebellion.*

Alden, JAMES, naval officer; born in Portland, Me., March 31, 1810; became a midshipman in 1828; lieutenant in 1841; commander in 1855; captain, Jan. 2, 1863; commodore, July 25, 1866; and rear-admiral, June 19, 1871. He was a participant in the South Sea Exploring Expedition under Lieutenant Wilkes, and served under Commodore Conner on the Gulf coast of Mexico during the war with that country. He was active in the reinforcement of Fort Pickens; in the expedition against Galveston; as commander of the *Richmond* in the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip; in the capture of New Orleans; and at Vicksburg, Port Hudson, Mobile Bay, and Fort Fisher. He was appointed chief of the Bureau of Navigation and Detail in 1869, and, after his promotion to rear-admiral, commander of the European squadron. He died in San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 6, 1877.

Alden, JOHN, a "Pilgrim Father"; born in England in 1599; was employed as a cooper in Southampton, and, having been engaged to repair the *Mayflower* while awaiting the embarkation of the Pilgrims, concluded to join the company. It has been stated that he was the first of the Pilgrim party to step on Plymouth Rock, but other authorities give this honor to Mary Chilton. Alden settled in Duxbury, and in 1621 was married to Priscilla Mullins. For more than fifty years he was a magistrate in the colony, and outlived all the signers of the *Mayflower* compact. He died in Duxbury, Sept. 12, 1687. The circumstances of his courtship inspired Longfellow to write *The Courtship of Miles Standish.* They were as follows:

The dreadful famine and fever which destroyed one-half of the Pilgrims at New Plymouth during the winter and spring of 1621 made a victim of Rose Standish, wife of Capt. Miles Standish. Her husband was then thirty-seven years of age. Not long after this event the brave little captain was smitten by the charms of Priscilla Mullins, daughter of William Mullins, who was a passenger on the *Mayflower.* Priscilla had then just bloomed into young womanhood, and Standish sent young John Alden to ask the hand of the maiden in marriage. The ambassador went to her father and discreetly and modestly performed the duties of his mission The father readily gave his consent, and added, "But Priscilla must be consulted." She was summoned to the room, where sat young, graceful, almost courtly, ruddy-faced John Alden, whom she knew well. The ambassador of love repeated his message, and when Priscilla asked, "Why does he not come himself?" and was answered, "He is too busy," the indignant maiden declared that she would never marry a man who was "too busy" to court her. She said (in the words of Longfellow):

> "'Had he waited awhile, had only showed
> that he loved me,
> Even this captain of yours—who knows?
> —at last might have won me,
> Old and rough as he is; but now it never
> can happen.'"

John Alden pressed the suit of Standish, when

"Archly the maiden smiled, and, with eyes
overrunning with laughter,
Said, in a tremulous voice, 'Why don't you
speak for yourself, John?'"

Young Alden blushed, bowed, and retired, for he was faithful to his trust. His visit was soon repeated, and it was not long before the nuptials of John Alden and Priscilla Mullins were celebrated by the whole community, excepting Captain Standish, who could not readily forgive the weakness (for he knew it was not perfidy) of his young friend in surrendering at the first assault from the eyes and lips of the maiden.

Aldrich, CHARLES, historian; born in Ellington, N. Y., Oct. 2, 1828; was educated at Jamestown Academy, N. Y. On June 29, 1857, he established *The Freedman*, a newspaper in Webster City, Ia. For several years between 1860 and 1870 he was chief clerk of the Iowa House of Representatives, and in 1882 was a member of that body; in 1875 served with the United States Geological Survey in the Rocky Mountains; and in 1892 established the Historical Department of Iowa, of which he afterwards was made curator and secretary.

Aldrich, NELSON WILMARTH, statesman; born in Foster, R. I., Nov. 6, 1841; president of the Providence common council, 1871–73; member of the Rhode Island House of Representatives, 1875–76, serving the latter year as speaker; member of Congress, 1878–82; United States Senator, 1881 to the present time.

Aldrich, THOMAS BAILEY, author and editor; born in Portsmouth, N. H., Nov. 11, 1836; entered upon mercantile life at an early age, and at the same time engaged in writing verses for the New York journals. In 1856 he joined the staff of the *Home Journal*. He edited *Every Saturday* from its foundation, and from time to time contributed largely to periodical publications. From 1881 to 1890 he was the editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Aleutian, or **Aleutan,** ISLANDS, a group in the North Pacific Ocean, stretching in a row from the peninsula of Alaska towards the shores of Kamchatka. They belong to the Territory of Alaska. These islands were discovered by Bering in 1728, and are about 150 in number. A few of them are inhabited, chiefly by Eskimos. The population is estimated at nearly 6,000. Russian missionaries have converted them to Christianity, and they are chiefly engaged in the various fisheries. The islands are volcanic and rocky, and agriculture is unknown there.

Alexander, an American Indian king. MASSASOIT (*q. v.*) died in 1660. Three or four years before his death he took his two sons, Wamsutta and Metacomet, to Plymouth, Mass., and asked that both should receive English names. The oldest was named Alexander, and the second Philip. Alexander succeeded his father as chief sachem of the Wampanoags. In 1661 he was compelled to go to Plymouth a prisoner, on suspicion of being leagued with the Narragansets in hostile designs against the English. The suspicion was not sustained by evidence. On his way to Plymouth the chief was taken suddenly ill, and in a few hours died, it was said of a fever brought on by rage and mortification. His young wife, who became the squaw sachem Witamo, believed he had been poisoned by the English. This event soured the minds of Philip and his followers towards the English, and was one of the indirect causes which led to King Philip's War. See PHILIP.

Alexander, ARCHIBALD, theologian; born in Augusta (now Rockbridge) county, Va., April 17, 1772; was of Scotch descent, and became teacher in a Virginian family at the age of seventeen years. In 1791 he entered the ministry as an itinerant missionary in his native State. In 1789 he became president of Hampden-Sidney College; left it in 1801; married a daughter of Rev. Mr. Waddell, the celebrated "blind preacher" in Virginia, and afterwards (1807) became pastor of a Presbyterian church in Philadelphia. In 1810 he was elected president of Union College, Georgia, but did not accept it. On the establishment of the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J., in 1811, Dr. Alexander was chosen its first professor, which position he held until his death, Oct. 22, 1851. Among his numerous writings his *Outlines of the Evidences of Christianity*, used as a text-book in several colleges, is most extensively known. It has passed through many editions in various languages.

Alexander, BARTON STONE, military

engineer; born in Kentucky in 1819; was graduated at the Military Academy at West Point in 1842. He was made second lieutenant of engineers in 1843, and captain in 1856. For services at the battle of Bull Run, July, 1861, he was brevetted major, and in March, 1863, was commissioned major of the engineer corps. For meritorious services during the Civil War, he was brevetted brigadier-general in March, 1865. Active during the war, he was consulting engineer in Sheridan's army in the Shenandoah Valley, and was at the Battle of Cedar Creek, Oct. 19, 1864. After the war he spent two years in charge of the construction of public works in Maine. He died in San Francisco, Cal., Dec. 15, 1878.

Alexander, EDWARD PORTER, engineer; born in Washington, Ga., May 26, 1835; was graduated at the United States Military Academy, and commissioned a second lieutenant in the United States Engineer Corps in 1857; resigned and entered the Confederate army in 1861; served with the Army of Northern Virginia from the beginning to the close of the war, attaining the rank of brigadier-general and chief of ordnance. In 1866–70 he was Professor of Mathematics and Engineering in the University of South Carolina; in 1871–92 engaged in railroad business; and in 1892–94 was a member of the Boards on Navigation of the Columbia River, Ore., and on the ship-canal between Chesapeake and Delaware bays. Subsequently he was engineer-arbitrator of the boundary survey between Costa Rica and Nicaragua.

Alexander, JAMES, an active public man in the province of New York, to which he emigrated from Scotland in 1715, where he was born in 1690. He had fled from Scotland because of his peril there as an adherent of the "Young Pretender." He was accompanied by William Smith, afterwards chief-justice of the province and its historian. He was made surveyor-general of New Jersey and New York, was secretary of the latter colony, and attained eminence in the profession of the law. As attorney-general of the province and occupant of other important positions, he became distinguished. He was one of the able counsel who defended the freedom of the press in the person of John Peter Zenger in 1735. Because of the part which he took in that famous trial he was arbitrarily excluded from the bar, but was reinstated in 1737. He was associated with Franklin and others in founding the American Philosophical Society. He was the father of William Alexander, known as Lord Stirling, a general in the Continental army. He died in New York City, April 2, 1756.

Alexander, WILLIAM, called Lord Stirling, military officer; born in New York City in 1726; was a son of Secretary Alexander of New Jersey. His mother was the widow of David Provoost, a wealthy merchant of the city of New York. Attached to the commissariat of the army, he attracted the notice of General Shirley, and was for three years his aide-de-camp and private secretary. He went to England and Scotland in 1755, and before his return he prosecuted his claim to the earldom of Stirling, but was unsuccessful. He spent much of his fortune in the matter. It was generally believed that he was the rightful heir to the title and estates, and he assumed the title of Lord Stirling, by which he was ever afterwards known in America. When the quarrel with Great Britain began in the colonies Lord Stirling espoused the cause of the patriots. In 1775 he was appointed a colonel, and in March, 1776, was commissioned a brigadier-general in the Continental army. When General Lee went South, Lord Stirling was placed in command of the troops in and around the city of New York. After conspicuous service in the battle of Long Island (Aug. 27, 1776) he was made a prisoner, but was soon exchanged; and in

LORD STIRLING.

1777 he was commissioned by Congress a major-general.

He fought with Washington on the Brandywine on Sept. 11, 1777, and was specially distinguished at Germantown and Monmouth, commanding the left wing of the American army in the last-named engagement. He was one of the most faithful of Washington's soldiers during the war. William Alexander married a daughter of William Livingston, of New Jersey, and had been, like his father, surveyor-general. He was also an excellent mathematician and astronomer. He was one of the founders of the New York Society Library, and also of King's College (now Columbia University). Alexander Humphreys, born in Birmingham, England, in 1783, claimed the earldom of Stirling. In 1824 he obtained the royal license to assume the name of Alexander, because he had a maternal grandfather of that name, and his deceased mother was a great-great-granddaughter of John Alexander, fourth son of William Alexander, the last earl of Stirling, and all intermediate heirs had become extinct. For a short time he exercised the privileges of an earl, and he even claimed vast possessions in Nova Scotia; but after a legal investigation he was stripped of his titles and pretensions, and in 1839 he sank into oblivion. Many of the original surveys in New Jersey made by William Alexander and his father are now in the possession of the New Jersey Historical Society, and are frequently consulted by lawyers to quiet titles to real estate. William Alexander died in Albany, N. Y., Jan. 15, 1783.

Alexander, Sir William, patentee of Nova Scotia, and a poet and court favorite, to whom James I. and Charles I. were much attached. He was born at Menstrie, Scotland, in 1580. He became the author of verses when he was fourteen years old, and was cherished by Scotchmen as a descendant of the Macdonalds. His *Aurora* contained more than one hundred sonnets, songs, and elegies which displayed the effects of ill-requited love. When the Council for New England perceived the intention of the French beyond the St. Croix to push their settlements westward, they granted to Sir William (who had been knighted in 1614) all of the territory now known as New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, excepting a part of Acadia proper; and the King confirmed it, and issued a patent Sept. 10, 1621. The territory granted was called Nova Scotia—New Scotland—and it was given to Sir William and his heirs in fee without conditions. It was erected into a royal palatinate, the proprietor being invested with the rights and powers of a count-palatine. It was designed to settle the territory with Scotch emigrants, who should form a barrier against French encroachments. A colony was accordingly planted, and Sir William held possession ten years before he was displaced by the French.

In 1625 Charles I. (who had just succeeded his deceased father), in order to help Sir William plant a successful colony or sell the domain in parcels, created the order of "Baronets of Nova Scotia," the title to be conferred upon purchasers of large tracts of land there. He also gave the proprietor the privilege of coining base copper money. In 1626 Sir William was appointed Secretary of State for Scotland, Keeper of the Signet in 1627, Commissioner of the Exchequer in 1628, also Lord of Canada. In 1630 he was created Viscount Stirling, and in 1633 Earl of Stirling and Viscount of Canada. In 1628 the Council for New England gave him a grant of territory, which included a part of Long Island, opposite Connecticut; but he was not able to manage his colonization schemes in Nova Scotia, and he sold his domain to the French. He died in London, Sept. 12, 1640. Lord Stirling's title expired with the fifth earl (1739), but other claimants appeared afterwards. See Acadia.

Alexander VI., Pope. Rodrigo Lenzuolo; son of Isabelle Borgia and nephew of Pope Calixtus III.; was born in Valencia, Spain, Jan. 1, 1431; studied law; was appointed a cardinal by his uncle before he was twenty-five years old; made archbishop of Valencia in 1458; elected Pope, after the death of Pope Innocent VIII., Aug. 11, 1492; was crowned under the title of Alexander VI., with great pomp and solemnity, Aug. 26, 1492; and died Aug. 18, 1503. He issued the bull dividing the New World between Spain and Portugal.

On the return of Columbus from his first voyage of discovery, the Portuguese,

who had previously explored the Azores and other Atlantic islands, instantly claimed a title to the newly discovered lands, to the exclusion of the Spaniards. Simultaneous with the order given to Columbus at Barcelona to return to Hispaniola, an ambassador was sent to Rome to obtain the Pope's sanction of their claims to the regions discovered, and to make a conquest of the West Indies. Alexander assented without much hesitation to the proposal, and, on May 3, 1493, he issued a bull, in which he directed that a line supposed to be drawn from pole to pole, at a distance of 100 leagues westward of the Azores, should serve as a boundary. All the countries to the east of this imaginary line, not in possession of a Christian prince, he gave to the Portuguese, and all westward of it to the Spaniards. On account of the dissatisfaction with the Pope's partition, the line was fixed 270 leagues farther west. Other nations of Europe subsequently paid no attention to it, but sent colonies to the Western Continent without the leave of the sovereigns of Spain or the Pope. A little more than a century afterwards the English Parliament insisted that occupancy confers a good title, by the law of nations and nature. This remains a law of nations. Portugal soon disregarded the Pope's donation to Spain, and sent an expedition to North America in 1500.

Alexandria, city, port of entry; on the Potomac River, here a mile wide and providing an excellent harbor, and 6 miles below Washington, D. C. The city contains a number of high-grade educational institutions, and has important manufacturing industries. In 1890 the population was 14,339; in 1900, 14,528.

In August, 1814, while the British were making their way across Maryland towards Washington, a portion of the British fleet, consisting of two frigates of thirty-six guns and thirty-eight guns, two rocket-ships of eighteen guns, two bomb-vessels of eight guns, and one schooner of two guns, sailed up the Potomac under the charge of Commodore Gordon, of the *Sea Horse*, and easily passed the guns of Fort Washington, the defences of which the government had neglected. The British squadron appeared before the fort (Aug. 27), when the commander blew up the magazine and fled. The squadron passed and anchored in front of Alexandria, prepared to lay the city in ashes with bombs and rockets if demands were not complied with. There was no effective force at Alexandria to oppose the invaders, for the able-bodied men and heavy guns had been called to the defence of Washington. They were powerless, and were compelled to submit. The invader contented himself with burning one vessel and loading several others with plunder, for he became in too great a hurry to depart to wait for the hidden merchandise and the raising of the scuttled vessels. The squadron sailed down the Potomac, annoyed all the way by batteries and the militia on the shore, the former quickly constructed and armed with heavy guns from vessels sent by Commodore Rogers from Baltimore, and also others sent down from Washington. The British squadron, having an aggregate of

FORT WASHINGTON.

173 guns, passed out safely into Chesapeake Bay on Sept. 5.

In the Civil War the city was occupied by National troops on May 25, 1861, and the same day Col. Ephraim Elmer Ellsworth (*q. v.*), commanding the 11th New York Volunteers (Fire Zouaves), was killed as he was descending from the roof of the Marshall House, where he had hauled down a Confederate flag, by James T. Jackson, the keeper of the hotel.

Alexandria, La. See Red River Expedition.

Alexandria Conference. George Mason and Alexander Henderson, of Virginia, and Daniel Jenifer, Thomas Stone, and Samuel Chase, of Maryland, were commissioned in 1785 to treat concerning the jurisdiction of the waters between the two States. Their report led to the Annapolis Convention of 1786 (*q. v.*).

Alexandria Government. See Virginia, 1867.

Alfonso XIII., King of Spain; born in Madrid, May 17, 1886, after his father's death; son of the late King Alfonso XII. and Maria Christina, daughter of the late Carl Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria. His mother became Queen Regent during his minority, and after the destruction of the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay she made strenuous though unavailing efforts to induce both the Pope and the principal countries of Europe to intervene in the hope of speedily closing the war between the United States and Spain.

Alger, Cyrus, inventor; born in West Bridgewater, Mass., Nov. 11, 1781; became an iron-founder early in life. In 1809 he founded in Boston the works which since 1817 have been known as the South Boston Iron Company. During the War of 1812 he supplied the government with a large number of cannon-balls. He devised many improvements in the construction of time-fuses for bomb-shells and grenades. In 1811 he invented a method of making cast-iron chilled rolls, and in 1822 designed the cylinder stove. The first perfect bronze cannon, the first gun ever rifled in the United States, and the largest gun of cast-iron, the "Columbiad" mortar, that had been cast in the country, were turned out at his foundry under his personal supervision. He died in Boston, Feb. 4, 1856.

Alger, Horatio, author; born in Revere, Mass., Jan. 13, 1834; graduated at Harvard in 1852. After spending several years in teaching and journalism he was ordained as a Unitarian minister in 1864. He removed to New York City in 1866. He published *Bertha's Christmas Vision; Nothing to Do,* a poem; *Frank's Campaign, or, What a Boy Can Do; Helen Ford,* a novel; a volume of poems; *Ragged Dick; Luck and Pluck; Tattered Tom; Frank and Fearless; His Young Bank Messenger,* etc. He died in Natick, Mass., July, 18, 1899.

Alger, Russell Alexander, ex-Secretary of War; born in Lafayette, O., Feb. 27, 1836; worked on a farm for years earning

Russell A. Alger.

money to defray the expenses of his education. He was admitted to the bar in 1859, but was forced by ill health to give up practice. When the Civil War broke out he entered the Union army as a captain, and became brevet major-general of volunteers. After the war he entered the lumber business, in which he acquired a large fortune. He was governor of Michigan in 1885–87; was a candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination in 1888; was commander-in-chief of the Grand Army in 1889–90; and became Secretary of War in 1897. During the American-Spanish War in 1898 he was subjected to public censure on account of alleged shortcomings in the War Department. He resigned in 1899; was appointed United

States Senator in 1902, and elected in 1903; and published *The American-Spanish War* (1901).

Alger, WILLIAM ROUNSEVILLE, clergyman and author; born in Freetown, Mass., Dec. 30, 1822; graduated at Harvard Theological School in 1847; held charges in Boston, New York, Denver, Chicago, and Portland, Me., subsequently making his home in Boston. His publications include: *Symbolic History of the Cross; History of the Doctrine of a Future Life; The Genius of Solitude; The Friendships of Women; Poetry of the Orient; Life of Edwin Forrest; Sounds of Consolation in Human Life,* etc.

Algiers, one of the former Barbary States on the northern coast of Africa, stretching west from Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean; bombarded and captured by the French in 1830, and held under French military control till 1871, when a French civil administration was established. All of Algeria is now considered a part of France rather than a colony. The city of Algiers, under French domination, is the capital of the department and colony, is well equipped with educational institutions, and has become as orderly as any place in France. The population in 1891 was 82,585.

The Barbary States derived their name from the Berbers, the ancient inhabitants. From their ports, especially from Algiers, went out piratical vessels to depredate upon the commerce of other peoples. So early as 1785 two American vessels had been captured by these corsairs, and their crews (twenty-one persons) had been held in slavery for ransom. The Dey, or ruler, of Algiers demanded $60,000 for their redemption. As this sum would be a precedent, other means were sought to obtain the release of the captives. In a message, in 1790, President Washington called the attention of Congress to the matter, but the United States were without a navy to protect their commerce. For what protection American vessels enjoyed they were indebted to Portugal, then at war with Algiers. In 1793 the British government made a secret arrangement with that of Portugal, whereby peace with Algiers was obtained. In that arrangement it was stipulated that for the space of a year Portugal should not afford protection to the vessels of any nation against Algerine corsairs. This was for the purpose of injuring France. The pirates were immediately let loose upon commerce. David Humphreys, who had been sent to Algiers by the government of the United States to make arrangements for the release of American commerce from danger, was insulted by the Dey. Humphreys wrote, "If we mean to have commerce, we must have a navy." Meanwhile the United States were compelled to pay tribute to the Dey to keep his corsairs from American commerce.

From 1785 until the autumn of 1793, when Washington called the attention of Congress to the necessity of a navy, the Algerine pirates had captured fifteen American vessels and made 180 officers and seamen slaves of the most revolting kind. To redeem the survivors of these captives, and others taken more recently, the United States government paid about $1,000,000 in ransom-money. In the autumn of 1795 the government was compelled to agree, by treaty, to pay to the Dey of Algiers an annual tribute for the relief of captured seamen, according to long usage among European nations. It was humiliating, but nothing better could then be done, and humanity demanded it. In 1812 the Dey, offended because he had not received from the American government the annual tribute in precisely such articles as he wanted, dismissed the American consul, declared war, and his corsairs captured American vessels and reduced the crews to slavery. The American consul—Mr. Lear—was compelled to pay the Dey $27,000 for the security of himself and family and a few other Americans there from horrid slavery. Determined to pay tribute no longer to the insolent semi-barbarian, the American government accepted the Dey's challenge for war, and in May, 1815, sent Commodore Decatur to the Mediterranean with a squadron to humble the Dey. Decatur found the Algerine pirate-fleet cruising for American vessels. He played havoc with the corsairs, entered the Bay of Algiers (June 28), demanded the instant surrender of all American prisoners, full indemnification for all property destroyed, and absolute relinquishment of all claims to tribute from the United States there-

after. The terrified Dey complied with the demand. See DECATUR, STEPHEN.

Algonquian, or Algonkian, Indians, the most powerful of the eight distinct Indian nations found in North America by the Europeans in the seventeenth century. It was composed of several tribes, the most important of which were the Ottawas, Chippewas, Sacs and Foxes, Menomonees, Miamis, Pottawattomies, Kickapoos, Illinois, Shawnees, Powhatans, Corees, Nanticokes, Lenni-Lenapes or Delawares, Mohegans, the New England Indians, the Abenakes, and Micmacs. There were smaller independent tribes, the principal of which were the Susquehannas in Pennsylvania; the Mannahoacs in the hill-country between the York and Potomac rivers; and the Monacans, on the headwaters of the James River, Virginia. All of these tribes were divided into cantons or clans, sometimes so small as to afford a war-party of only forty men. The domain of the Algonkians covered a vast region, bounded on the north and northeast by the Eskimos; on the northwest by the Knistenaux and Athabascas; on the west by the Dakotas; on the south by the Catawbas, Cherokees, Mobilians, and Natchez; and on the east by Nova Scotia. West of the Mississippi, the Blackfeet and Cheyennes are regarded as a family of the Algonkians. The original land of the *Ottawas* was on the west side of Lake Huron; but they were seated upon the Ottawa River, in Canada, when the French discovered them, and claimed sovereignty over that region. The *Chippewas* and *Pottawattomics* were closely allied by language and friendship. The former were on the southern shores of Lake Superior; the latter occupied the islands and mainland on the western shores of Green Bay when first discovered by the French. In 1701 they seated themselves on the southern shores of Lake Michigan.

The *Sacs* and *Foxes* are really one tribe. They were found by the French, in 1680, at the southern extremity of Green Bay. The *Menomonees* are among the few Indian tribes who occupy the same domain as when they were discovered by Europeans in 1699. That domain is upon the shores of Green Bay, and there the tribe remains. The *Miamis* and *Piankeshaws* inhabited that portion of Ohio lying between the Miami or Maumee, on Lake Erie, and the watershed between the Wabash and Kaskia rivers. The English and the Five Nations called them the Twightwees. The *Kickapoos* were on the Wisconsin River when discovered by the French. The *Illinois* formed a numerous tribe, 12,000 strong, when discovered by the French. They were seated on the Illinois River, and composed a confederation of five families—namely, Kaskaskias, Cahokias, Tamaronas, Michigamies, and Peorias. The *Shawnees* occupied a vast region west of the Alleghany Mountains, and their great council-house was in the basin of the Cumberland River. The Powhatans constituted a confederacy of more than twenty tribes, including the Accohannocks and Accomacs, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay. The confederacy occupied the region in Virginia consisting of the navigable portion of the James and York rivers, with their tributaries. The *Corees* were south of the Powhatans, on the Atlantic coast, in northern North Carolina. The *Cheraws* and other small tribes occupied the land of the once powerful Hatteras family, below the Corees. The *Nanticokes* were upon the peninsula between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays. The *Lenni-Lenapes*, or *Delawares*, comprised powerful families—namely, the Minsis and Delawares proper. The former occupied the northern part of New Jersey and a portion of Pennsylvania, and the latter inhabited lower New Jersey, the banks of the Delaware River below Trenton, and the whole valley of the Schuylkill. The *Mohegans* were a distinct tribe on the east side of the Hudson River, and under that name were included several independent families on Long Island and the country between the Lenni-Lenapes and the New England Indians. The *New England Indians* inhabited the country from the Connecticut River eastward to the Saco, in Maine. The principal tribes were the Narragansets on Rhode Island; the Pokanokets and Wampanoags on the eastern shore of Narraganset Bay and in a portion of Massachusetts; the Massachusetts in the vicinity of Boston and the shores southward; and the Pawtuckets in the northeastern part of Massachusetts, embracing the Pennacooks of New Hampshire. The ABENAKES (*q. v.*) were east-

ward of the Saco. Their chief tribes were the Penobscots, Norridgewocks, Androscoggins, and Passamaquoddies. For further details of the principal tribes, see their respective titles.

Alien and Sedition Laws, Up to 1798 the greater part of the emigrants to the United States since the adoption of the national Constitution had been either Frenchmen, driven into exile by political troubles at home, or Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen, who had espoused ultra-republican principles, and who, flying from the severe measures of repression adopted against them at home, brought to America a fierce hatred of the government of Great Britain, and warm admiration of republican France. Among these were some men of pure lives and noble aims, but many were desperate political intriguers, ready to engage in any scheme of mischief. It was estimated that at the beginning of 1798 there were 30,000 Frenchmen in the United States organized in clubs, and at least fifty thousand who had been subjects of Great Britain. These were regarded as dangerous to the commonwealth, and in 1798, when war with France seemed inevitable, Congress passed acts for the security of the government against internal foes. By an act (June 18, 1798), the naturalization laws were made more stringent, and alien enemies could not become citizens at all. By a second act (June 25), which was limited to two years, the President was authorized to order out of the country all aliens whom he might judge to be dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States. By a third act (July 6), in case of war declared against the United States, or an actual invasion, all resident aliens, natives or citizens of the hostile nation, might, upon proclamation of the President, issued according to his discretion, be apprehended and secured or removed. These were known as Alien Laws. The President never had occasion to put them in force, but several prominent Frenchmen, who felt that the laws were aimed at them, speedily left the United States. Among these was M. Volney, who, in the preface of his work, *A View of the Soil and Climate of the United States,* complained bitterly of "the public and violent attacks made upon his character, with the connivance or instigation of a certain eminent personage," meaning President Adams.

On July 14, 1798, an act was passed for the punishment of sedition. It made it a high misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not to exceed $5,000, imprisonment from six months to five years, and binding to good behavior at the discretion of the court, for any person unlawfully to combine in opposing measures of the government properly directed by authority, or attempting to prevent government officers executing their trusts, or inciting to riot and insurrection. It also provided for the fining and imprisoning of any person guilty of printing or publishing "any false, scandalous, and malicious writings against the government of the United States, or either House of Congress, or the President, with intent to defame them, or to bring them into contempt or disrepute." This was called the Sedition Law. These laws were assailed with great vigor by the Opposition, and were deplored by some of the best friends of the administration. Hamilton deprecated them. He wrote a hurried note of warning against the Sedition Act (June 29, 1798) to Wolcott, while the bill was pending, saying: "Let us not establish a tyranny. Energy is a very different thing from violence. If we take no false step, we shall be essentially united; but if we push things to the extreme, we shall then give to parties *body* and *solidity*." Nothing contributed more to the Federalist defeat two years later than these extreme measures. See KENTUCKY; NATURALIZATION.

Aliens. See NATURALIZATION.

Aliquippa, an Indian queen who dwelt at the confluence of the Monongahela and Youghiogheny rivers at the time of Washington's expedition to Fort Le Bœuf (1753). She had complained of his neglect in not calling on her on his outward journey, so he visited her in returning. With an apology, he gave the queen a coat and a bottle of rum. "The latter," Washington wrote, "was thought the much better present of the two," and harmony of feeling was soon restored. Aliquippa was a woman of great muscular and mental strength, and had performed such brave deeds that she was held in reverence by the Indians of western Pennsylvania.

Alison, FRANCIS, patriot and educator; born in Donegal county, Ireland, in 1705; came to America in 1735; and in 1752 he took charge of an academy in Philadelphia. From 1755 until his death he was Vice-provost and Professor of Moral Philosophy of the College of Pennsylvania. His chief claim to honor among men is that he was the tutor of a large number of Americans who were conspicuous actors in the events of the Revolution that accomplished the independence of the United States of America. He died in Philadelphia, Nov. 28, 1779.

Allatoona Pass, a locality in Bartow county, Ga., about 40 miles northwest of Atlanta, having large historical interest because of the important military operations in 1864. The Confederates, retreating from Resaca, took a position at Allatoona Pass. Sherman, after resting his army, proceeded to flank them out of their new position. J. C. Davis's division of Thomas's army had moved down the Oostenaula to Rome, where he destroyed important mills and foundries, and captured nearly a dozen guns. He left a garrison there. Meanwhile Sherman had destroyed the Georgia State Arsenal near Adairsville. The Nationals proceeded to gather in force at and near Dallas. Johnston was on the alert, and tried to prevent this formidable flank movement. Hooker's corps met Confederate cavalry near Pumpkinvine Creek, whom he pushed across that stream and saved a bridge they had fired. Following them eastward 2 miles, he (Hooker) found the Confederates in strong force and in battle order. A sharp conflict ensued, and at 4 P.M. he made a bold push, by Sherman's order, to secure possession of a point near New Hope Church, where roads from Ackworth, Marietta, and Dallas met. A stormy night ensued, and Hooker could not drive the Confederates from their position. On the following morning Sherman found the Confederates strongly intrenched, with lines extending from Dallas to Marietta. The approach to their intrenchments must be made over rough, wooded, and broken ground.

For several days, constantly skirmishing, Sherman tried to break through their lines to the railway east of the Allatoona Pass. McPherson's troops moved to Dallas, and Thomas's deployed against New Hope Church, in the vicinity of which there were many severe encounters, while Schofield was directed to turn and strike Johnston's right. On May 28 the Confederates struck McPherson a severe blow at Dallas; but the assailants were repulsed with heavy loss. At the same time, Howard, nearer the centre, was repulsed. Sherman, by skilful movements, compelled Johnston to evacuate his strong position at Allatoona Pass (June 1, 1864). The National cavalry, under Garrard and Stoneman, were pushed on to occupy it, and there Sherman, planting a garrison, made a secondary base of supplies for his army. Johnston made a stand at the Kenesaw Mountains, near Marietta; but Sherman, who had been reinforced by two divisions under Gen. Frank P. Blair (June 8), very soon caused him to abandon that position, cross the Chattahoochee River, and finally to rest at Atlanta.

ALLATOONA PASS.

After the evacuation of Atlanta (Sept. 2, 1864), Sherman and Hood reorganized their armies in preparation for a vigorous fall campaign. Satisfied that Hood intended to assume the offensive and probably attempt the seizure of Tennessee, Sherman sent Thomas, his second in command, to Nashville, to organize the new troops expected to gather there, and to make arrangements to meet such an emergency. Thomas arrived there Oct. 3. Meanwhile the Confederates had crossed the Chattahoochee, and by a rapid movement had struck the railway at Big Shanty, north of Marietta, and destroyed it for several miles. A division of infantry pushed northward and appeared before Allatoona, where Colonel Tourtellotte was guarding 1,000,000 National rations with only three thin regiments. Sherman made efforts at once for the defence of these and his communications. Leaving Slocum to hold Atlanta and the railway bridge across the Chattahoochee, he started on a swift pursuit of Hood with five army corps and two divisions of cavalry. He established a signal station on the summit of Great Kenesaw Mountain, and telegraphed to General Corse, at Rome, to hasten to the assistance of Tourtellotte. Corse instantly obeyed; and when the Confederates appeared before Allatoona, at dawn (Oct. 5), he was there with reinforcements, and in command. The Confederates were vastly superior in numbers, and invested the place. After cannonading the fort two hours, their leader (General French) demanded its surrender. Then he assailed it furiously, but his columns were continually driven back. The conflict raged with great fierceness; and Sherman, from the top of Kenesaw, heard the roar of cannon and saw the smoke of battle, though 18 miles distant. He had pushed forward a corps (23d) to menace the Confederate rear, and by signal-flags on Kenesaw he said to General Corse at Allatoona, "Hold the fort, for I am coming." And when Sherman was assured that Corse was there, he said, "He will hold out; I know the man." And so he did. He repulsed the Confederates several times; and when they heard of the approach of the 23d Corps, they hastily withdrew, leaving behind them 230 dead and 400 prisoners, with about 800 small-arms. The Nationals lost 707 men. The famous signal of General Sherman was subsequently made the title of one of Ira D. Sankey's most thrilling hymns, which has been sung the world over.

Allegiance, Oath of. See Oaths.

Allen, Charles Herbert, administrator; born in Lowell, Mass., April 15, 1848; was graduated at Amherst College in 1869; and became a lumber merchant at Lowell. He served in both Houses of the Massachusetts legislature; was a Republican member of Congress in 1885–89; defeated as Republican candidate for governor of Massachusetts in 1891; became Assistant Secretary of the Navy in May, 1898; was appointed the first American governor of Porto Rico in April, 1900; and resigned in July, 1901.

Allen, Ethan, military officer; born in Litchfield, Conn., Jan. 10, 1737. In 1762 he was one of the proprietors of the ironworks at Salisbury, Conn. In 1766 he went to the then almost unsettled domain between the Green Mountains and Lake Champlain, where he was a bold leader of the settlers on the New Hampshire grants in their controversy with the authorities of New York. (See New Hampshire.) During this period several pamphlets were written by Allen, in his peculiar style, which forcibly illustrated the injustice of the action of the New York authorities. The latter declared Allen an outlaw, and offered a reward of £150 for his arrest. He defied his enemies, and persisted in his course. Early in May, 1775, he led a few men and took the fortress of Ticonderoga. His followers were called "Green Mountain Boys." His success as a partisan caused him to be sent twice into Canada, during the latter half of 1775, to win the people over to the republican cause. In the last of these expeditions he attempted to capture Montreal.

With less than 100 recruits, mostly Canadians, Colonel Allen crossed the St. Lawrence, Sept. 25, 1775. This was done at the suggestion of Col. John Brown, who was also recruiting in the vicinity, and who agreed to cross the river at the same time a little above the city, the attack to be made simultaneously by both parties. For causes never satisfactorily explained, Brown did not cross, and dis-

aster ensued. Gen. Robert Prescott was in command in the city. He sallied out with a considerable force of regulars, Canadians and Indians, and after a short skirmish made Allen and his followers prisoners. When Prescott learned that

Allen was the man who captured Ticonderoga, he treated him very harshly. He was bound hand and foot with irons, and these shackles were fastened to a bar of iron 8 feet in length. In this plight he was thrust into the hold of a vessel to be sent to England, and in that condition he was kept five weeks; but when she sailed from Quebec the humane captain struck off his irons. He was confined seven weeks in Pendennis Castle in England, when he was sent to Halifax, and thence to New York, where he was exchanged in the spring of 1778, and returned home, where he was received with joy and honors. He was invested with the chief command of the State militia. Congress immediately gave him the commission of lieutenant-colonel in the Continental army. When, in the course of the war, Vermont assumed and maintained an independent position, a fruitless attempt was made by Beverly Robinson to bribe Allen to lend his support to a union of that province with Canada. He was supposed to be disaffected towards the revolted colonies, and he fostered that impression in order to secure the neutrality of the British towards his mountain State until the close of the war. As a member of the legislature of Vermont, and as a delegate in Congress, he secured the great object of his efforts—namely, the ultimate recognition of Vermont as an independent State. He removed to Burlington before the close of the war, and died there Feb. 13, 1789. In 1894 the United States government established a new military post 5 miles from Burlington and named it after him. See ETHAN ALLEN, FORT.

Allen, ETHAN, lawyer; born in Monmouth county, N. J., May 12, 1832; was graduated at Brown University in 1860. At the beginning of the Civil War he raised a brigade of troops, but did not enter the service. In 1861–69 he was deputy United States attorney for the Southern District of New York; in 1870–90 practised law in New York City; and in the Presidential campaign of 1872 was chairman of the National Liberal Republican Committee. Subsequently he was president of the Cuban League of the United States. He is the author of *Washington, or the Revolution,* a history of the American Revolution in dramatic form.

Allen, HENRY WATKINS, military officer; born in Prince Edward county, Va., April 29, 1820; became a lawyer in Mississippi; and in 1842 raised a company to fight in Texas. He settled at West Baton Rouge, La., in 1850; served in the State legislature; was in the Law School at

Cambridge in 1854; and visited Europe in 1859. He took an active part with the Confederates in the Civil War, and was at one time military governor at Jackson, Miss. In the battle of Shiloh and at Baton Rouge he was wounded. He was commissioned a brigadier-general in 1864, but was almost immediately elected governor of Louisiana, the duties of which he performed with great ability and wisdom. At the close of the war he made his residence in the city of Mexico, where he established the *Mexican Times*, which he edited until his death, April 22, 1866.

Allen, Ira, military officer; a younger brother of Ethan; born in Cornwall, Conn., April 21, 1751. He was an active patriot, and took a distinguished part in public affairs in Vermont, his adopted State, where he served in the legislature, and was secretary of state, surveyor-general, and a member of the council. He was a military leader in the war for independence, and was one of the commissioners sent to Congress to oppose the claims of neighboring provinces to jurisdiction in Vermont. He effected an armistice with the British in Canada in 1781, and by so doing brought about a settlement of the controversy with New York. As senior major-general of the State militia in 1795, he went to Europe to purchase arms for his commonwealth, and on his way homeward with muskets and cannon he was captured, taken to England, and charged with being an emissary of the French, and intending to supply the Irish malcontents with arms. After long litigation the matter was settled in Allen's favor. He wrote a *National and Political History of Vermont*, published in London in 1798, and died in Philadelphia, Jan. 7, 1814.

Allen, James Lane, author; born in Kentucky in 1849; was graduated at Transylvania University; taught in the Kentucky University, and later became Professor of Latin and Higher English in Bethany College, West Virginia. Since 1886 he has been engaged in authorship. His publications include *Flute and Violin; The Blue Grass Region, and Other Sketches of Kentucky; John Gray*, a novel; *The Kentucky Cardinal; Aftermath; A Summer in Arcady; The Choir Invisible*, etc.

Allen, Joel Asaph, zoologist; born in Springfield, Mass., July 19, 1838; studied zoology at the Lawrence Scientific School. In 1865–71 he was a member of scientific expeditions to Brazil, the Rocky Mountains, and Florida; in 1870–85 was assistant in ornithology at the Museum of Comparative Zoology in Cambridge. He was president of the American Ornithologists' Union in 1883–90, and since 1885 has been curator of the department of vertebrate zoology in the American Museum of Natural History in New York. Professor Allen edited the *Bulletin* of the Nuttall Ornithological Club, and was author of *Monographs of North American Rodents* (with Elliott Coues); *History of North American Pinnipeds*, etc.

Allen, Robert, military officer; born in Ohio, about 1815; was graduated at West Point in 1836, and served with distinction in the war with Mexico. He was a very useful officer in the Civil War, and attained the rank of brigadier-general, and brevet major-general of volunteers. He was stationed at St. Louis, where his services were of great value during the war. At its close he was made assistant quartermaster-general (1866), and afterwards chief-quartermaster of the division of the Pacific. He died in Switzerland, Aug. 6, 1886.

Allen, William, jurist; born in Philadelphia about 1710; married a daughter of Andrew Hamilton, a distinguished lawyer of Pennsylvania, whom he succeeded as recorder of Philadelphia in 1741. He assisted Benjamin West, the painter, in his early struggles, and co-operated with Benjamin Franklin in establishing the College of Pennsylvania. Judge Allen was chief-justice of that State from 1750 to 1774. A strong loyalist, he withdrew to England in 1774. In London he published a pamphlet entitled *The American Crisis*, containing a plan for restoring American dependence upon Great Britain. He died in England in September, 1780.

Allen, William, educator and author; born in Pittsfield, Mass., Jan. 2, 1784; graduated at Harvard College in 1802. After entering the ministry and preaching for some time in western New York, he was elected a regent and assistant librarian of Harvard College. He was president of Dartmouth College in 1817–20, and

of Bowdoin College in 1820–39. He was the author of *Junius Unmasked;* a supplement to *Webster's Dictionary; Psalms and Hymns; Memoirs of Dr. Eleazer Wheelock and of Dr. John Codmand; A Discourse at the Close of the Second Century of the Settlement at Northampton, Mass.; Wunnissoo, or the Vale of Housatonnuck,* a poem; *Christian Sonnets; Poems of Nazareth and the Cross; Sacred Songs;* and numerous pamphlets, and contributed biographical articles to Sprague's *Annals of the American Pulpit.* He also prepared the first edition of the *American Biographical and Historical Dictionary.* He died in Northampton, Mass., July 16, 1868.

Allen, WILLIAM HENRY, naval officer; born in Providence, R. I., Oct. 21, 1784; entered the navy as a midshipman in April, 1800, and sailed in the frigate *George Washington* to Algiers. He afterwards went to the Mediterranean in the *Philadelphia,* under Barron; then in the *John Adams,* under Rodgers; and in 1804 as sailing-master to the *Congress.* He was in the frigate *Constitution* in 1805; and in 1807 he was third lieutenant of the *Chesapeake* when she was attacked by the *Leopard.* It was Lieutenant Allen who drew up the memorial of the officers of the *Chesapeake* to the Secretary of the Navy, urging the arrest and trial of Barron for neglect of duty. In 1809 he was made first lieutenant of the frigate *United States,* under Decatur. He behaved bravely in the conflict with the *Macedonian;* and after her capture took her safely into New York Harbor, Jan. 1, 1813. In July, 1813, he was promoted to master-commandant while he was on his voyage in the brig *Argus,* that took W. H. Crawford, American minister, to France. That voyage ended in a remarkable and successful cruise among the British shipping in British waters. After capturing and destroying more than twenty British merchantmen, his own vessel was captured; and he was mortally wounded by a round shot (Aug. 14), and died the next day at Plymouth, England, whither he was conveyed as a prisoner.

WILLIAM HENRY ALLEN.

Allen, WILLIAM VINCENT, politician; born in Midway, O., Jan. 28, 1847; was educated in the common schools and Upper Iowa University; served as a private soldier in the Union army during the Civil War. In 1869 he was admitted to the bar. In 1891 he was elected judge of the Ninth Judicial District Court of Nebraska, and in 1892, United States Senator from Nebraska, as a Populist. In the special session of Congress in 1893 he held the floor with a speech for fifteen consecutive hours, and in 1896 was chairman of the Populist National Convention. See PEOPLE'S PARTY; POPULISTS.

Allerton, ISAAC, a Pilgrim Father; born in England about 1583; was the fifth man who appended his name to the constitution of government signed in the cabin of the *Mayflower.* He survived the terrors of the first winter at Plymouth, and afterwards became the active agent of the settlers in negotiating the purchase of the domain from the Indians for the London merchants who furnished money for the enterprise. He was a successful trader, and became one of the founders of the commerce of New England. He finally made New Amsterdam (now New York) his chief place of residence, and traded principally in tobacco. He was chosen one of the Council of Eight Men. He died in New Haven in 1659.

Alliance, FARMERS'. See FARMERS' ALLIANCE.

Allibone, SAMUEL AUSTIN, bibliographer; born in Philadelphia, April 17, 1816. He was the author of *A Critical*

Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors, Living and Deceased, from the Earliest Accounts to the Latter Half of the Nineteenth Century. This work is in 3 volumes royal octavo, and exhibits evidence of great care, industry, good judgment, most extensive research, and immense labor in its preparation. Dr. Allibone spent many years in gathering and arranging his materials. The volumes were published in 1859, 1870, and 1871. The work contains notices of 47,000 authors, with forty classified indexes of subjects. Dr. Allibone contributed articles to the *North American Review*, the *Evangelical Review*, and other periodicals, and was the author of some religious controversial essays. He also privately printed and circulated a number of tracts. He was librarian of the Lenox Library in New York City at the time of his death, Sept. 2, 1889.

Allison, WILLIAM BOYD, statesman; born in Perry, O., March 2, 1829; was educated at Alleghany and Western Reserve Colleges; admitted to the bar and practised in Ohio until 1857, when he removed to Dubuque, Ia. In 1860 he was a delegate to the Chicago Convention. During the Civil War he was active in raising troops for the Union army. In 1862 he was elected to Congress as a Republican, and was re-elected three times. In 1873 he was elected to the United States Senate, and has since held the seat by re-elections. He has been a conspicuous candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination several times, and his name is associated with that of the late RICHARD P. BLAND (*q. v.*) in the history of the Silver Act of 1877–78. See BLAND SILVER BILL.

Allouez, CLAUDE JEAN, one of the earliest French missionaries and explorers of the country near the Great Lakes; born in 1620. After laboring among the Indians on the St. Lawrence several years, he penetrated the Western wilds and established a mission on the western shores of Lake Michigan, where he heard much about the Mississippi River, and made notes of what he learned concerning it. He explored Green Bay, and founded a mission among the Foxes, Miamis, and other tribes there. A mission begun by Marquette at Kaskaskia, Ill., Allouez sought to make his permanent field of labor; but when La Salle, the bitter opponent of the Jesuits, approached in 1679, he retired. Returning to the Miamis on the St. Joseph's River, he labored for a while, and died, Aug. 27, 1689. The contributions of Father Allouez to the *Jesuit Relations* are most valuable records of the ideas and manners of the Indians.

Allston, WASHINGTON, a distinguished painter; born in Waccamaw, S. C., Nov. 5, 1779; was graduated at Harvard College

WASHINGTON ALLSTON.

in 1800; went to Europe the next year to study art, and remained eight years abroad. His numerous works of art exhibit great power in delineating the pictures of a fertile imagination. His skill as a colorist earned him the title of "The American Titian." He died in Cambridge, Mass., July 9, 1843.

Almagro, DIEGO DE, a Spanish conqueror of Peru, and principal associate of Pizarro; born about 1464. Almagro, Pizarro, and a priest named Luque undertook the conquest of Peru, and effected it, with a small force, in 1533. Almagro was appointed governor of what is now Chile in 1534, extending his conquests into that region in 1535. He and Pizarro became bitter enemies. He conquered Cuzco, the ancient capital of Peru. In a decisive

battle near that place, in 1538, Almagro was defeated, made prisoner, and put to death by order of Pizarro, in July, 1538. Almagro was profligate, perfidious, and cruel. His barbarous treatment of the inca Atahualpa covered his name and fame with infamy. The inca's son rallied men, who assassinated Pizarro, July 26, 1541, and these were executed by order of the Viceroy of Peru in 1542.

Almanacs, AMERICAN. No copy is known to exist of the almanac of 1639, the first published in America, calculated for New England by William Pierce, mariner; another, the *Boston Almanac*, by John Foster, 1676. William Bradford at Philadelphia published an almanac of twenty pages, 1685, commonly received as the first almanac published in the colonies; a copy from the Brinley library sold in New York, March, 1882, for $555.

Alsop, RICHARD, a witty poet and essayist; born in Middletown, Conn., Jan. 23, 1761. He is best known in literature as the principal author of a series of burlesque pieces, begun in 1791 and ended in 1805, entitled, in collective form, *The Echo*. They were thus published in 1807. Dwight, Hopkins, and Trumbull were associated with Alsop in the production of *The Echo*, which, from a work provocative of mirth, became a bitter political satirist of the Democratic party. He wrote a *Monody on the Death of Washington*, in heroic verse, which was published in 1800. Alsop ranked among the "Hartford Wits" at the close of the eighteenth century. He died in Flatbush, L. I., Aug. 20, 1815.

Alta California, the name formerly applied to Upper, or New, California, now a State in the American Union, to distinguish it from Lower, or Old, California, now a territory of Mexico. The name California was first applied solely to what is now known as Lower California.

Altgeld, JOHN PETER, lawyer; born in Germany, Dec. 30, 1847; was brought to the United States in infancy by his parents, who settled near Mansfield, O.; received a public school education; entered the Union army in 1863, and served till the close of the war. In 1869 he was admitted to the Missouri bar; in 1874 was elected State attorney of Andrew county, Mo.; in the following year removed to Chicago; in 1886–91 was judge of the superior court of that city; and in 1893–97 was governor of Illinois. His action in pardoning (June 27, 1893) Fielden, Schwab, and Neebe, who had been imprisoned for complicity in the Haymarket atrocity by alleged anarchists, excited strong and general criticism (see ANARCHISTS; SOCIALISM). His publications include *Our Penal Machinery and its Victims; Live Questions; Oratory*, etc. He died in Joliet, Ill., March 12, 1902.

Alvarado, PEDRO DE, a Spanish conqueror in America; born in Badajos, Spain, about 1485. Sailing from Spain to Cuba, in 1518, he accompanied Grijalva on his exploring expedition along the Gulf coasts. Alvarado made explorations and discoveries on the coast of California, and was killed in a skirmish with the natives in New Galicia, June 4, 1541.

Alvey, RICHARD HENRY, jurist; born in St. Mary's county, Md., in March, 1826; was educated in St. Mary's College; admitted to the bar in 1849. He was elected a Pierce Presidential elector in 1852, and a member of the Michigan State Constitutional Convention in 1867. He served as chief judge of the Fourth Judicial Circuit, and as a justice of the Michigan Court of Appeals in 1867–83, and as chief-justice of that court in 1883–93. On Jan. 1, 1896, President Cleveland appointed him a member of the VENEZUELAN BOUNDARY COMMISSION (*q. v.*).

Ambassador, the title of the highest diplomatic officer. In the days immediately preceding the establishment of the American Republic the officers who were sent to Europe on diplomatic missions were officially termed commissioners. On June 1, 1785, when Marquis Carmarthen introduced John Adams to the King of Great Britain, he designated the American representative as "Ambassador Extraordinary from the United States of America to the Court of London." When the American diplomatic service was permanently organized, the title of the highest representative was made "Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary," subordinate representatives being given the title of "Ministers" or "Ministers Resident." In 1893 Congress passed an act providing that whenever a foreign government elevated its representative at

Washington to the rank of an ambassador, the United States government would raise its representative to that foreign government to the same rank. Under this law the American representatives to France, Great Britain, Italy, Mexico, and Russia have been raised to the higher rank, and are known officially as Ambassadors Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary. Ambassadors, in addition to the usual privileges accorded representatives of foreign governments, have the special one of personal audience with the head of the State to which they are accredited.

Ambrister. See ARBUTHNOT.

Ambulance Service. The benevolent work of the Volunteer Refreshment Saloons of Philadelphia during 1861–65 was

PHILADELPHIA FIREMEN'S AMBULANCE.

supplemented by a good work carried on wholly by the firemen of that city. When sick and wounded soldiers began to be brought to the hospitals in Philadelphia, the medical department found it difficult to procure proper vehicles to convey them from the wharves to their destination. The distress caused by delays and inconvenient conveyances the sympathetic firemen attempted to alleviate. An arrangement was made for the chief of the department to announce the arrival of a transport by a given signal, when the firemen would hasten to the landing-place with spring-wagons. Finally, the "Northern Liberties Engine Company" had a fine ambulance constructed. More than thirty other engine and hose companies followed their example, and the suffering soldiers were conveyed from ship to hospital with the greatest tenderness. These ambulances cost in the aggregate over $30,000, all of which was contributed by the firemen. The number of disabled soldiers who were conveyed on these ambulances during the war was estimated at more than 120,000.

Amelia Island, an island at the mouth of the St. Mary River, near the boundary between Georgia and Florida. In the summer of 1817 Gregor McGregor, styling himself "Brigadier-general of the armies of New Granada and Venezuela, and general-in-chief employed to liberate the provinces of both the Floridas," commissioned by the supreme councils of Mexico and South America, took possession of this island. His followers were a band of adventurers which he had collected in Charleston and Savannah; and when he took possession he proclaimed a blockade of St. Augustine. In the hands of these desperadoes the island was soon converted into a resort of buccaneering privateers under the Spanish-American flag, and a depot for smuggling slaves into the United States. Another similar establishment had been set up on Galveston Island, off the coast of Texas, under a leader named Aury. This establishment was more important than that on Amelia Island, as well on account of numbers as for the greater facilities afforded for smuggling. It was a second Barataria, and to it some of the old privateers and smugglers of Lafitte's band of Baratarians resorted. Under a secret act, passed in 1811, and first made public in 1817, the President took the responsibility of suppressing both these establishments. Aury had joined McGregor with the Galveston desperadoes, and their force was formidable. The President sent Captain Henly, in the ship *John Adams,* with smaller vessels, and a battalion of Charleston artillery under Major Bankhead, to take possession of Amelia Island. McGregor was then at sea, leaving Aury in command of the island. He was summoned to evacuate it; and on Dec. 23 the naval and military commanders, with their forces, entered the place and took quiet possession. Aury left it in February, and so both nests of pirates and smugglers were broken up. At the same time there was much sympathy felt in the United States for the revolted Spanish-American colonies, and, in spite of the neutrality laws, a number of cruisers were fitted out in American ports under their flags.

Amendments of the Constitution. See CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

America, Discoverers of. About the year 860 Noddodr, an illustrious sea-rover, driven by a storm, discovered Iceland, and named it Snowland. Not many years afterwards Earl Ingolf, of Norway, sought Iceland as a refuge from tyranny, and planted a colony there. Greenland was discovered by accident. One of the early settlers in Iceland was driven westward on the sea by a storm, and discovered Greenland. To that retreat Eric the Red was compelled to fly from Iceland, and, finding it more fertile than the latter, named it Greenland, made it his place of abode, and attracted other Northmen thither. Among Eric's followers was a Norwegian, whose son Bjarni, or Biarne, a promising young man, trading between Norway and Iceland, and finding his father gone with Eric, proposed to his crew to go to his parent in Greenland. They were driven westward, and, it is believed, they saw the American continent in the year 986. The sons of Eric heard the stories of Bjarni, and one of them, Lief, sailed in search of the newly discovered land, and found it. See United States.

While there continues to be much doubt concerning the authenticity of claims put forth in behalf of extremely early discoverers, there are unquestioned historical records of America for the space of over 500 years. It was undoubtedly discovered by Northern navigators early in the eleventh century, and the colony of the son of a Welsh prince, Madoc (*q. v.*), probably landed on the North American continent about the year 1170. There is no evidence that the Northmen saw more than the coasts of Labrador and New England—possibly Newfoundland; and the landing-place of Madoc is wholly conjectural. On Oct. 11, 1492, Christopher Columbus discovered one of the Bahama Islands, east of Florida, but not the continent. In the summer of 1498 Sebastian Cabot (commissioned by King Henry VII. of England), who sailed from Bristol in May with two caravels, discovered the North American continent at Labrador. He was seeking a northwest passage to "Cathay," and, being barred from the Polar Sea by pack-ice, sailed southward, discovered Labrador, and possibly went along the coast as far as the Carolinas. He discovered and named Newfoundland, and found the treasures of codfishes in the waters near it. On Aug. 1 the same summer Columbus discovered the continent of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River.

Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, and an agent of the de' Medici family of Florence, was in Spain when the great discovery of Columbus was made. In May, 1499, Vespucius sailed from Spain with Alonzo de Ojeda as an adventurer and self-constituted geographer for the new-found world. They followed the southern track of Columbus in his third voyage, and off the coast of Surinam, South America, they saw the mountains of the continent. That was a year after Columbus first saw the continent of America. On his return, in 1500, Vespucius gave an account of the voyage in a letter to Lorenzo de' Medici (for text of letter, see Americus Vespucius). He made other voyages, and in a letter to René, Duke of Lorraine, written in 1504, he gave an account of his four voyages, in which he erroneously dated the time of his departure on his first voyage May 29, 1497, or a year or more *before* Columbus and Cabot severally discovered the *continent* of North and South America. In 1505 a narrative of his voyages to America was published at Strasburg, entitled *Americus Vesputius de Orbe Antarctico per Regum Portugalliae Pridem Juventa.* From that publication, bearing the untrue date of his first voyage, Vespucius acquired the reputation of being the first discoverer of America. Alluding to that false date and the statements under it, the learned and conscientious Charlevoix wrote that "Ojeda, when judicially interrogated, gave the lie direct to the statement." And Herrera, an early Spanish historian, accuses Vespucius of purposely falsifying the date of two of his voyages, and of confounding one with the other, "in order that he might arrogate to himself the glory of having discovered the continent." Finally, when Columbus was dead, and no voice of accusation or denial could escape his lips, the narratives of Vespucius were published at St. Diey, in Lorraine, then, as now, a German frontier province. At that time Vespucius was in correspondence with a learned German school-master named Waldseemüller (Wood-lake-miller), who was a corre-

spondent of the Academy of Cosmography at Strasburg, founded by the Duke of Lorraine. Waldseemüller suggested to the members of that institution, under whose auspices the narrative of Vespucius had been published, the name of "America" for the Western Continent, in compliment to the reputed discoverer. This proposition was published, with approval, in a work entitled *Cosmographiæ Rudimenta*, in 1507. It is believed that this action was taken at the request or suggestion of Vespucius; at any rate, he is responsible for the fraud, for it was published seven years before the death of the Florentine, and he never repudiated it. "Considering the intimacy of the two parties," says the learned Viscount Santerem, "there is no doubt that the geographer was guided by the navigator in what he did." The name of *America* was given in honor of Americus Vespucius, for whom a fraudulent claim to be the first discoverer of the Western Hemisphere was made, and it was done at the suggestion of a German school-master. Both Columbus and Cabot were deprived of the rightful honor. See AMERICA, DISCOVERY OF.

In 1499, Vincent Yañez Pinzon sailed from Palos with his brother and four caravels, and, reaching the coast of South America, discovered the great river Amazon in the spring of 1500. Before Pinzon's return, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, sent by Emanuel, King of Portugal, while on an exploring expedition discovered Brazil, and took possession of it in the name of the crown of Portugal. It was within the territory donated by the Pope to the Spanish monarchs. (See ALEXANDER VI.) A friendly arrangement was made, and it was ultimately agreed that the King of Portugal should hold all the country he had discovered from the river Amazon to the river Platte. On the announcement of the discoveries of Cabot in the Northwest, King Emanuel of Portugal sent Gaspard Cortereal, a skilful navigator, with two caravels on a voyage of discovery towards the same region. He saw Labrador, and possibly Newfoundland, and went up the coast almost to Hudson Bay; and it is believed that he discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In 1504 Columbus, in a fourth voyage to America, sailed with four caravels through the Gulf of Mexico, in search of a passage to India, and discovered Central America. In 1506 John Denys, of Honfleur, explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Two years later Thomas Aubert, a pilot of Dieppe, visited, it is believed, the island of Cape Breton, and gave it its name. He carried some of the natives with him to France. In 1518 the Baron de Leri, preparatory to the settlement of a colony on Sable Island, left some cattle there, whose progeny, fourscore years afterwards, gave food to unfortunate persons left on the island by the Marquis de la Roche. Six years later, Juan Ponce de Leon, an old Spanish nobleman, sailed from Porto Rico, in the West Indies, of which he was governor, in search of an island containing a fabled fountain of youth. He did not find the spring, but discovered a beautiful land covered with exquisite flowers, and named it Florida. In 1520 Lúcas Vasquez de Allyon, a wealthy Spaniard, who owned mines in Santo Domingo, voyaged northwesterly from that island, and discovered the coast of South Carolina. Meanwhile the Spaniards had been pushing discoveries westward from Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo. Ojeda also discovered Central America. In 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean from a mountain summit on the Isthmus of Darien. Francisco Fernandez de Cordova discovered Mexico in 1517. Pamphila de Narvaez and Ferdinand de Soto traversed the country bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, the former in 1528, and the latter in 1539–41. In the latter year De Soto discovered and crossed the Mississippi, and penetrated the country beyond. This was the last attempt of the Spaniards to make discoveries in North America before the English appeared upon the same field.

It is claimed for Giovanni da Verrazano, a Florentine navigator, that he sailed from France with four ships, in 1524, on a voyage of discovery, and that he traversed the shores of America from Florida to Nova Scotia. He is supposed to have entered Delaware Bay and the harbors of New York, Newport, and Boston, and named the country he had discovered New France. Jacques Cartier discovered the gulf and river St. Lawrence in 1534, and, revisiting them the next year, gave them that name, because the day when he

entered their waters was dedicated to St. Lawrence. In 1576 Sir Martin Frobisher went to Greenland and Labrador, and coasting northward discovered the bay that bears his name. Huguenot adventurers from South Carolina, floating on the ocean helplessly, were picked up, taken to England, and by the stories which they told of the beautiful land they had left, caused Queen Elizabeth to encourage voyages of discovery in that direction. Sir Walter Raleigh, favored by the Queen, sent two ships, commanded by Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow, to the middle regions of the North American coast. They discovered Roanoke Island and the main near, and in honor of the unmarried Queen the whole country was named Virginia. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, sailing from England directly across the Atlantic, discovered the continent on May 14, near Nahant, Mass., and sailing southward also discovered a long, sandy point, which he named Cape Cod, because of the great number of that fish found there. He also discovered Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and the Elizabeth Islands. In 1604 Martin Pring discovered the coast of Maine.

Again the French had turned their attention to North America. M. de Chastes, governor of Dieppe, having received a charter from the King of France to form a settlement in New France, he employed Samuel Champlain, an eminent navigator, to explore that region. He sailed from Honfleur in March, 1603, went up the St. Lawrence in May to Quebec, and, returning to France, found De Chastes dead, and the concession granted to him transferred by the King to Pierre du Gast, Sieur de Monts, a wealthy Huguenot, who accompanied Champlain on another voyage to the St. Lawrence the next year. In 1608 he went up the St. Lawrence again; and the following summer, while engaged in war with some Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois, he discovered the lake that bears his name in northern New York. At the same time, Henry Hudson, a navigator in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, entered the harbor of New York (September, 1609) and ascended the river that bears his name as far as Albany. The region of the Great Lakes and the upper valley of the Mississippi were discovered and explored by French traders and Jesuit missionaries in the seventeenth century. So early as 1640 the former penetrated the western wilds from Quebec. Father Allouez set up a cross and the arms of France westward of the lakes in 1665. Father Marquette, another Jesuit missionary, pushed farther in 1673, and discovered the upper waters of the Mississippi. Father Hennepin, who accompanied La Salle, explored the Mississippi in a canoe from the mouth of the Illinois River, northward, in 1680, and discovered and named the Falls of St. Anthony. A little later Robert Cavelier de la Salle, an enterprising young trader, penetrated to the Mississippi, and afterwards visited the coast of Texas from the sea and planted the germ of a colony in Louisiana. See AMERICUS VESPUCIUS; CABEZA DE VACA; CABOT, SEBASTIAN; COLONIES; COLUMBUS, CHRISTOPHER; VERRAZANO, GIOVANNI DA; HUI SHEN; VASQUEZ DE ALLYON.

America, DISCOVERY OF. Ferdinand Columbus was an illegitimate son of the great admiral by Doña Beatrix Henriques; was born in Cordova Aug. 15, 1488; became a page to Queen Isabella in 1498; accompanied his father on the fourth voyage, in 1502–4; passed the latter part of his life principally in literary pursuits and in accumulating a large library; and died in Seville July 12, 1539. Among his writings was a biography of his father, which was published in Italian, in Venice, in 1571. The original of this work, in Spanish, together with that of his history of the Indies, is lost, although a considerable portion of his collection of volumes in print and manuscript is still preserved in the Seville Cathedral. Because of the loss of the original manuscript of the biography, its authenticity has been called into question, and has formed the basis for quite a spirited controversy by historians, with the result that the general belief in the genuineness of the biography has not been seriously shaken. If it did not settle the doubt, the controversy had the effect of calling a larger degree of attention to the biography than it would have had otherwise.

In this biography Ferdinand gave a narrative of the discovery of America by his father, which is herewith reproduced:

THE FLEET OF COLUMBUS APPROACHING THE NEW WORLD

All the conditions which the admiral demanded being conceded by their Catholic majesties, he set out from Granada on the 21st May 1492, for Palos, where he was to fit out the ships for his intended expedition. That town was bound to serve the crown for three months with two caravels, which were ordered to be given to Columbus; and he fitted out these and a third vessel with all care and diligence. The ship in which he personally embarked was called the St. Mary; the second vessel named the Pinta, was commanded by Martin Alonzo Pinzon; and the third named the Nina, which had square sails, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon, the brother of Alonzo, both of whom were inhabitants of Palos. Being furnished with all necessaries, and having 90 men to navigate the three vessels, Columbus set sail from Palos on the 3d of August 1492, shaping his course directly for the Canaries.

During this voyage, and indeed in all the *four* voyages which he made from Spain to the West Indies, the admiral was very careful to keep an exact journal of every occurrence which took place; always specifying what winds blew, how far he sailed with each particular wind, what currents were found. and every thing that was seen by the way, whether birds, fishes, or any other thing. Although to note all these particulars with a minute relation of every thing that happened, shewing what impressions and effects answered to the course and aspect of the stars, and the differences between the seas which he sailed and those of our countries, might all be useful; yet as I conceive that the relation of these particulars might now be tiresome to the reader, I shall only give an account of what appears to me necessary and convenient to be known.

On Saturday the 4th of August, the next day after sailing from Palos, the rudder of the Pinta broke loose. The admiral strongly suspected that this was occasioned by the contrivance of the master on purpose to avoid proceeding on the voyage, which he had endeavoured to do before they left Spain, and he therefore ranged up along side of the disabled vessel to give every assistance in his power, but the wind blew so hard that he was unable to afford any aid. Pinzon, however, being an experienced seaman, soon made a temporary repair by means of ropes, and they proceeded on their voyage. But on the following Tuesday, the weather becoming rough and boisterous, the fastenings gave way, and the squadron was obliged to lay to for some time to renew the repairs. From this misfortune of twice breaking the rudder, a superstitious person might have foreboded the future disobedience of Pinzon to the admiral; as through his malice the Pinta twice separated from the squadron, as shall be afterwards related. Having applied the best remedy they could to the disabled state of the rudder, the squadron continued its voyage, and came in sight of the Canaries at day-break of Thursday the 9th of August; but owing to contrary winds, they were unable to come to anchor at Gran Canaria until the 12th. The admiral left Pinzon at Gran Canaria to endeavour to procure another vessel instead of that which was disabled, and went himself with the Nina on the same errand to Gomera.

The admiral arrived at Gomera on Sunday the 12th of August, and sent a boat on shore to inquire if any vessel could be procured there for his purpose. The boat returned next morning, and brought intelligence that no vessel was then at that island, but that Dona Beatrix de Bobadilla, the propriatrix of the island, was then at Gran Canaria in a hired vessel of 40 tons belonging to one Gradeuna of Seville, which would probably suit his purpose and might perhaps be got. He therefore determined to await the arrival of that vessel at Gomera, believing that Pinzon might have secured a vessel for himself at Gran Canaria, if he had not been able to repair his own. After waiting two days, he dispatched one of his people in a bark which was bound from Gomera to Gran Canaria, to acquaint Pinzon where he lay, and to assist him in repairing and fixing the rudder. Having waited a considerable time for an answer to his letter, he sailed with the two vessels from Gomera on the 23d of August for Gran Canaria, and fell in with the bark on the following day, which had been detained all that time on its voyage by contrary winds. He now took his man from the bark, and sailing in the night past the isl-

and of Teneriffe, the people were much astonished at observing flames bursting out of the lofty mountain called El Pico, or the Peak of Teneriffe. On this occasion the admiral was at great pains to explain the nature of this phenomenon to the people, by instancing the example of Etna and several other known volcanoes.

Passing by Teneriffe, they arrived at Gran Canaria on Saturday the 25th August; and found that Pinzon had only got in there the day before. From him the admiral was informed that Dona Beatrix had sailed for Gomera on the 20th with the vessel which he was so anxious to obtain. His officers were much troubled at the disappointment; but he, who always endeavoured to make the best of every occurrence, observed to them that since it had not pleased God that they should get this vessel it was perhaps better for them; as they might have encountered much opposition in pressing it into the service, and might have lost a great deal of time in shipping and unshipping the goods. Wherefore, lest he might again miss it if he returned to Gomera, he resolved to make a new rudder for the Pinta at Gran Canaria, and ordered the square sails of the Nina to be changed to *round* ones, like those of the other two vessels, that she might be able to accompany them with less danger and agitation.

The vessels being all refitted, the admiral weighed anchor from Gran Canaria on Saturday the first of September, and arrived next day at Gomera, where four days were employed in completing their stores of provisions and of wood and water. On the morning of Thursday the sixth of September, 1492, the admiral took his departure from Gomera, and commenced his great undertaking by standing directly westwards, but made very slow progress at first on account of calms. On Sunday the ninth of September, about day-break, they were nine leagues west of the island of Ferro. Now losing sight of land and stretching out into utterly unknown seas, many of the people expressed their anxiety and fear that it might be long before they should see land again; but the admiral used every endeavour to comfort them with the assurance of soon finding the land he was in search of, and raised their hopes of acquiring wealth and honour by the discovery. To lessen the fear which they entertained of the length of way they had to sail, he gave out that they had only proceeded fifteen leagues that day, when the actual distance sailed was eighteen; and to induce the people to believe that they were not so far from Spain as they really were, he resolved to keep considerably short in his reckoning during the whole voyage, though he carefully recorded the true reckoning every day in private.

On Wednesday the twelfth September, having got to about 150 leagues west of Ferro, they discovered a large trunk of a tree, sufficient to have been the mast of a vessel of 120 tons, and which seemed to have been a long time in the water. At this distance from Ferro, and for somewhat farther on, the current was found to set strongly to the north-east. Next day, when they had run fifty leagues farther westwards, the needle was observed to vary half a point to the eastward of north, and next morning the variation was a whole point east. This variation of the compass had never been before observed, and therefore the admiral was much surprised at the phenomenon, and concluded that the needle did not actually point towards the polar star, but to some other fixed point. Three days afterwards, when almost 100 leagues farther west, he was still more astonished at the irregularity of the variation; for having observed the needle to vary a whole point to the eastwards at night, it pointed directly northwards in the morning. On the night of Saturday the fifteenth of September, being then almost 300 leagues west of Ferro, they saw a prodigious flash of light, or fire ball, drop from the sky into the sea, at four or five leagues distance from the ships towards the south-west. The weather was then quite fair and serene like April, the sea perfectly calm, the wind favourable from the north-east, and the current setting to the north-east. The people in the Nina told the admiral that they had seen the day before a heron, and another bird which they called *Rabo-de-junco*. These were the first birds which had been seen during the voyage, and were considered as indications of approaching land. But they were more agreeably surprised next day, Sunday six-

teenth September, by seeing great abundance of yellowish green sea weeds, which appeared as if newly washed away from some rock or island. Next day the sea weed was seen in much greater quantity, and a small live lobster was observed among the weeds: from this circumstance many affirmed that they were certainly near the land. The sea water was afterwards noticed to be only half so salt as before; and great numbers of tunny fish were seen swimming about, some of which came so near the vessel, that one was killed by a bearded iron. Being now 360 leagues west from Ferro, another of the birds called rabo-de-junco was seen. On Tuesday the eighteenth September, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, who had gone a-head of the admiral in the Pinta, which was an excellent sailer, lay to for the admiral to come up, and told him that he had seen a great number of birds fly away westwards, for which reason he was in great hopes to see land that night; Pinzon even thought that he saw land that night about fifteen leagues distant to the northwards, which appeared very black and covered with clouds. All the people would have persuaded the admiral to try for land in that direction; but, being certainly assured that it was not land, and having not yet reached the distance at which he expected to find the land, he would not consent to lose time in altering his course in that direction. But as the wind now freshened, he gave orders to take in the top-sails at night, having now sailed eleven days before the wind due westwards with all their sails up.

All the people in the squadron being utterly unacquainted with the seas they now traversed, fearful of their danger at such unusual distance from any relief, and seeing nothing around but sky and water, began to mutter among themselves, and anxiously observed every appearance. On the nineteenth September, a kind of sea-gull called *Alcatraz* flew over the admiral's ship, and several others were seen in the afternoon of that day, and as the admiral conceived that these birds would not fly far from land, he entertained hopes of soon seeing what he was in quest of. He therefore ordered a line of 200 fathoms to be tried, but without finding any bottom. The current was now found to set to the south-west.

On Thursday the twentieth of September, two alcatrazes came near the ship about two hours before noon, and soon afterwards a third. On this day likewise they took a bird resembling a heron, of a black colour with a white tuft on its head, and having webbed feet like a duck. Abundance of weeds were seen floating in the sea, and one small fish was taken. About evening three land birds settled on the rigging of the ship and began to sing. These flew away at day-break, which was considered a strong indication of approaching the land, as these little birds could not have come from any far distant country; whereas the other large fowls, being used to water, might much better go far from land. The same day an alcatraz was seen.

Friday the twenty-first another alcatraz and a rabo-de-junco were seen, and vast quantities of weeds as far as the eye could carry towards the north. These appearances were sometimes a comfort to the people, giving them hopes of nearing the wished-for land; while at other times the weeds were so thick as in some measure to impede the progress of the vessels, and to occasion terror lest what is fabulously reported of St. Amaro in the frozen sea, might happen to them, that they might be so enveloped in the weeds as to be unable to move backwards or forwards; wherefore they steered away from those shoals of weeds as much as they could.

Next day, being Saturday the twenty-second September, they saw a whale and several small birds. The wind now veered to the south-west, sometimes more and sometimes less to the westwards; and though this was adverse to the direction of their proposed voyage, the admiral to comfort the people alleged that this was a favourable circumstance; because among other causes of fear, they had formerly said they should never have a wind to carry them back to Spain, as it had always blown from the east ever since they left Ferro. They still continued, however, to murmur, alleging that this southwest wind was by no means a settled one, and as it never blew strong enough to swell the sea, it would not serve to carry them

back again through so great an extent of sea as they had now passed over. In spite of every argument used by the admiral, assuring them that the alterations in the wind were occasioned by the vicinity of the land, by which likewise the waves were prevented from rising to any height, they were still dissatisfied and terrified.

On Sunday the twenty-third of September, a brisk gale sprung up W. N. W. with a rolling sea, such as the people had wished for. Three hours before noon a turtle-dove was observed to fly over the ship; towards evening an alcatraz, a river fowl, and several white birds were seen flying about, and some crabs were observed among the weeds. Next day another alcatraz was seen and several small birds which came from the west. Numbers of small fishes were seen swimming about, some of which were struck with harpoons, as they would not bite at the hook.

The more that the tokens mentioned above were observed, and found not to be followed by the so anxiously looked-for land, the more the people became fearful of the event, and entered into cabals against the admiral, who they said was desirous to make himself a great lord at the expense of their danger. They represented that they had already sufficiently performed their duty in adventuring farther from land and all possibility of succour than had ever been done before, and that they ought not to proceed on the voyage to their manifest destruction. If they did they would soon have reason to repent their temerity, as provisions would soon fall short, the ships were already faulty and would soon fail, and it would be extremely difficult to get back so far as they had already gone. None could condemn them in their own opinion for now turning back, but all must consider them as brave men for having gone upon such an enterprize and venturing so far, That the admiral was a foreigner who had no favour at court; and as so many wise and learned men had already condemned his opinions and enterprize as visionary and impossible, there would be none to favour or defend him, and they were sure to find more credit if they accused him of ignorance and mismanagement than he would do, whatsoever he might now say for himself against them. Some even proceeded so far as to propose, in case the admiral should refuse to acquiesce in their proposals, that they might make a short end of all disputes by throwing him overboard; after which they could give out that he had fallen over while making his observations, and no one would ever think of inquiring into the truth. They thus went on day after day, muttering, complaining, and consulting together; and though the admiral was not fully aware of the extent of their cabals, he was not entirely without apprehensions of their inconstancy in the present trying situation, and of their evil intentions towards him. He therefore exerted himself to the utmost to quiet their apprehensions and to suppress their evil design, sometimes using fair words, and at other times fully resolved to expose his life rather than abandon the enterprize; he put them in mind of the due punishment they would subject themselves to if they obstructed the voyage. To confirm their hopes, he recapitulated all the favourable signs and indications which had been lately observed, assuring them that they might soon expect to see the land. But they, who were ever attentive to these tokens, thought every hour a year in their anxiety to see the wished-for land.

On Tuesday the twenty-fifth of September near sun-set, as the admiral was discoursing with Pinzon, whose ship was then very near, Pinzon suddenly called out, "Land! land, Sir! let not my good news miscarry;" and pointed out a large mass in the S. W. about twenty-five leagues distant, which seemed very like an island. This was so pleasing to the people, that they returned thanks to God for the pleasing discovery; and, although the admiral was by no means satisfied of the truth of Pinzon's observation, yet to please the men, and that they might not obstruct the voyage, he altered his course and stood in that direction a great part of the night. Next morning, the twenty-sixth, they had the mortification to find the supposed land was only composed of clouds, which often put on the appearance of distant land; and, to their great dissatisfaction, the stems of the ships were again turned directly westwards, as they always were unless when hindered by the wind. Con-

tinuing their course, and still attentively watching for signs of land, they saw this day an alcatraz, a rabo-de-junco, and other birds as formerly mentioned.

On Thursday the twenty-seventh of September, they saw another alcatraz coming from the westwards and flying towards the east, and great numbers of fish were seen with gilt backs, one of which they struck with a harpoon. A rabo-de-junco likewise flew past; the currents for some of the last days were not so regular as before, but changed with the tide, and the weeds were not nearly so abundant.

On Friday the twenty-eighth all the vessels took some of the fishes with gilt backs; and on Saturday the twenty-ninth they saw a rabo-de-junco, which, although a sea-fowl, never rests on the waves, but always flies in the air, pursuing the alcatrazes. Many of these birds are said to frequent the Cape de Verd islands. They soon afterwards saw two other alcatrazes, and great numbers of flying-fishes. These last are about a span long, and have two little membranous wings like those of a bat, by means of which they fly about a pike-length high from the water and a musket-shot in length, and sometimes drop upon the ships. In the afternoon of this day they saw abundance of weeds lying in length north and south, and three alcatrazes pursued by a rabo-de-junco.

On the morning of Sunday the thirtieth of September four rabo-de-juncos came to the ship; and from so many of them coming together it was thought the land could not be far distant, especially as four alcatrazes followed soon afterwards. Great quantities of weeds were seen in a line stretching from W. N. W. to E. N. E. and a great number of the fishes which are called Emperadores, which have a very hard skin and are not fit to eat. Though the admiral paid every attention to these indications, he never neglected those in the heavens, and carefully observed the course of the stars. He was now greatly surprised to notice at this time that the *Charles wain* or Ursa Major constellation appeared at night in the west, and was N. E. in the morning: He thence concluded that their whole night's course was only nine hours, or so many parts in twenty-four of a great circle; and this he observed to be the case regularly every night. It was likewise noticed that the compass varied a whole point to the N. W. at nightfall, and came due north every morning at day-break. As this unheard-of circumstance confounded and perplexed the pilots, who apprehended danger in these strange regions and at such an unusual distance from home, the admiral endeavoured to calm their fears by assigning a cause for this wonderful phenomenon: He alleged that it was occasioned by the polar star making a circuit round the pole, by which they were not a little satisfied.

Soon after sunrise on Monday the first of October, an alcatraz came to the ship, and two more about ten in the morning, and long streams of weeds floated from east to west. That morning the pilot of the admiral's ship said that they were now 578 leagues west from the island of Ferro. In his public account the admiral said they were 584 leagues to the west; but in his private journal he made the real distance 707 leagues, or 129 more than was reckoned by the pilot. The other two ships differed much in their computation from each other and from the admiral's pilot. The pilot of Nina in the afternoon of the Wednesday following said they had only sailed 540 leagues, and the pilot of the Pinta reckoned 634. Thus they were all much short of the truth; but the admiral winked at the gross mistake, that the men, not thinking themselves so far from home, might be the less dejected.

The next day, being Tuesday the second of October, they saw abundance of fish, caught one small tunny, and saw a white bird with many other small birds, and the weeds appeared much withered and almost fallen to powder. Next day, seeing no birds, they suspected that they had passed between some islands on both hands, and had slipped through without seeing them, as they guessed that the many birds which they had seen might have been passing from one island to another. On this account they were very earnest to have the course altered one way or the other, in quest of these imaginary lands. But the admiral, unwilling to lose the advantage of the fair wind which carried him due west, which he accounted his surest course, and afraid to lessen his reputation by deviating from course to course in search

of land, which he always affirmed that he well knew where to find, refused his consent to any change. On this the people were again ready to mutiny, and resumed their murmurs and cabals against him. But it pleased God to aid his authority by fresh indications of land.

On Thursday the fourth of October, in the afternoon, above forty sparrows together and two alcatrazes flew so near the ship that a seaman killed one of them with a stone. Several other birds were seen at this time, and many flying-fish fell into the ships. Next day there came a rabo-de-junco and an alcatraz from the westwards, and many sparrows were seen. About sunrise on Sunday the seventh of October, some signs of land appeared to the westwards, but being imperfect no person would mention the circumstance. This was owing to fear of losing the reward of thirty crowns yearly for life which had been promised by their Catholic majesties to whoever should first discover land; and to prevent them from calling out land, land, at every turn without just cause, it was made a condition that whoever said he saw land should lose the reward if it were not made out in three days, even if he should afterwards actually prove the first discoverer. All on board the admiral's ship being thus forewarned, were exceedingly careful not to cry out land upon uncertain tokens; but those in the Nina, which sailed better and always kept ahead, believing that they certainly saw land, fired a gun and hung out their colours in token of the discovery; but the farther they sailed the more the joyful appearance lessened, till at last it vanished away. But they soon afterwards derived much comfort by observing great flights of large fowl and others of small birds going from the west towards the south-west.

Being now at a vast distance from Spain, and well assured that such small birds would not go far from land, the admiral now altered his course from due west which had been hitherto, and steered to the south-west. He assigned as a reason for now changing his course, although deviating little from his original design, that he followed the example of the Portuguese, who had discovered most of their islands by attending to the flight of birds, and because these they now saw flew almost uniformly in one direction. He said likewise that he had always expected to discover land about the situation in which they now were, having often told them that he must not look to find land until they should get 750 leagues to the westwards of the Canaries; about which distance he expected to fall in with Hispaniola which he then called Cipango; and there is no doubt that he would have found this island by his direct course, if it had not been that it was reported to extend from north to south. Owing therefore to his not having inclined more to the south he had missed that and others of the Caribbee islands whither those birds were now bending their flight, and which had been for some time upon his larboard hand. It was from being so near the land that they continually saw such great numbers of birds; and on Monday the eighth of October twelve singing birds of various colours came to the ship, and after flying round it for a short time held on their way. Many other birds were seen from the ship flying towards the south-west, and that same night great numbers of large fowl were seen, and flocks of small birds proceeding from the northwards, and all going to the south-west. In the morning a jay was seen, with an alcatraz, several ducks, and many small birds, all flying the same way with the others, and the air was perceived to be fresh and odoriferous as it is at Seville in the month of April. But the people were now so eager to see land and had been so often disappointed, that they ceased to give faith to these continual indications; insomuch that on Wednesday the tenth, although abundance of birds were continually passing both by day and night, they never ceased to complain. The admiral upraided their want of resolution, and declared that they must perish in their endeavours to discover the Indies, for which he and they had been sent out by their Catholic majesties.

It would have been impossible for the admiral to have much longer withstood the numbers which now opposed him; but it pleased God that, in the afternoon of Thursday the eleventh of October, such manifest tokens of being near the land appeared, that the men took courage and

rejoiced at their good fortune as much as they had been before distressed. From the admiral's ships a green rush was seen to float past, and one of those green fish which never go far from the rocks. The people in the Pinta saw a cane and a staff in the water, and took up another staff very curiously carved, and a small board, and great plenty of weeds were seen which seemed to have been recently torn from the rocks. Those of the Nina, besides similar signs of land, saw a branch of a thorn full of red berries, which seemed to have been newly torn from the tree. From all these indications the admiral was convinced that he now drew near to the land, and after the evening prayers he made a speech to the men, in which he reminded them of the mercy of God in having brought them so long a voyage with such favourable weather, and in comforting them with so many tokens of a successful issue to their enterprize, which were now every day becoming plainer and less equivocal. He besought them to be exceedingly watchful during the night, as they well knew that in the first article of the instructions which he had given to all the three ships before leaving the Canaries, they were enjoined, when they should have sailed 700 leagues west without discovering land, to lay to every night, from midnight till daybreak. And, as he had very confident hopes of discovering land that night, he required every one to keep watch at their quarters; and, besides the gratuity of thirty crowns a-year for life, which had been graciously promised by their sovereigns to him that first saw the land, he engaged to give the fortunate discoverer a velvet doublet from himself.

After this, as the admiral was in the cabin about ten o'clock at night, he saw a light on the shore; but it was so unsteady that he could not certainly affirm that it came from land. He called to one Peter Gutierres and desired him to try if he could perceive the same light, who said he did; but one Roderick Sanchez of Segovia, on being desired to look the same way could not see it, because he was not up time enough, as neither the admiral nor Gutierres could see it again above once or twice for a short space, which made them judge it to proceed from a candle or torch belonging to some fisherman or traveller, who lifted it up occasionally and lowered it again, or perhaps from people going from one house to another, because it appeared and vanished again so suddenly. Being now very much on their guard, they still held on their course until about two in the morning of Friday the twelfth of October, when the Pinta which was always far a-head, owing to her superior sailing, made the signal of seeing land, which was first discovered by Roderick de Triana at about two leagues from the ship. But the thirty crowns a-year were afterwards granted to the admiral, who had seen the light in the midst of darkness, a type of the spiritual light which he was the happy means of spreading in these dark regions of error. Being now so near land, all the ships lay to; every one thinking it long till daylight, that they might enjoy the sight they had so long and anxiously desired.

When daylight appeared, the newly discovered land was perceived to consist of a flat island fifteen leagues in length, without any hills, all covered with trees, and having a great lake in the middle. The island was inhabited by great abundance of people, who ran down to the shore filled with wonder and admiration at the sight of the ships, which they conceived to be some unknown animals. The Christians were not less curious to know what kind of people they had fallen in with, and the curiosity on both sides was soon satisfied, as the ships soon came to anchor. The admiral went on shore with his boat well armed, and having the royal standard of Castile and Leon displayed, accompanied by the commanders of the other two vessels, each in his own boat, carrying the particular colours which had been allotted for the enterprize, which were white with a green cross and the letter F. on one side and on the other the names of Ferdinand and Isabella crowned.

The whole company kneeled on the shore and kissed the ground for joy, returning God thanks for the great mercy they had experienced during their long voyage through seas hitherto unpassed, and their now happy discovery of an unknown land. The admiral then stood up, and took formal possession in the usual words for their Catholic majesties of this island, to

which he gave the name of St. Salvador. All the Christians present admitted Columbus to the authority and dignity of admiral and viceroy, pursuant to the commission which he had received to that effect, and all made oath to obey him as the legitimate representative of their Catholic majesties, with such expressions of joy and acknowledgement as became their mighty success; and they all implored his forgiveness of the many affronts he had received from them through their fears and want of confidence. Numbers of the Indians or natives of the island were present at these ceremonies; and perceiving them to be peaceable, quiet, and simple people, the admiral distributed several presents among them. To some he gave red caps, and to others strings of glass beads, which they hung about their necks, and various other things of small value, which they valued as if they had been jewels of high price.

After the ceremonies, the admiral went off in his boat, and the Indians followed him even to the ships, some by swimming and others in their canoes, carrying parrots, clews of spun cotton yarn, javelins, and other such trifling articles, to barter for glass beads, bells, and other things of small value. Like people in the original simplicity of nature, they were all naked, and even a woman who was among them was entirely destitute of clothing. Most of them were young, seemingly not above thirty years of age; of a good stature, with very thick black lank hair, mostly cut short above their ears, though some had it down to their shoulders, tied up with a string about their head like women's tresses. Their countenances were mild and agreeable and their features good; but their foreheads were too high, which gave them rather a wild appearance. They were of a middle stature, plump, and well shaped, but of an olive complexion, like the inhabitants of the Canaries, or sunburnt peasants. Some were painted with black, others with white, and others again with red; in some the whole body was painted, in others only the face, and some only the nose and eyes. They had no weapons like those of Europe, neither had they any knowledge of such; for when our people shewed them a naked sword, they ignorantly grasped it by the edge. Neither had they any knowledge of iron; as their javelins were merely constructed of wood, having their points hardened in the fire, and armed with a piece of fish-bone. Some of them had scars of wounds on different parts, and being asked by signs how these had been got, they answered by signs that people from other islands came to take them away, and that they had been wounded in their own defence. They seemed ingenious and of a voluble tongue; as they readily repeated such words as they once heard. There were no kind of animals among them excepting parrots, which they carried to barter with the Christians among the articles already mentioned, and in this trade they continued on board the ships till night, when they all returned to the shore.

In the morning of the next day, being the 13th of October, many of the natives returned on board the ships in their boats or canoes, which were all of one piece hollowed like a tray from the trunk of a tree; some of these were so large as to contain forty or forty-five men, while others were so small as only to hold one person, with many intermediate sizes between these extremes. These they worked along with paddles formed like a baker's peel or the implement which is used in dressing hemp. These oars or paddles were not fixed by pins to the sides of the canoes like ours; but were dipped into the water and pulled backwards as if digging. Their canoes are so light and artfully constructed, that if overset they soon turn them right again by swimming; and they empty out the water by throwing them from side to side like a weaver's shuttle, and when half emptied they lade out the rest with dried calabashes cut in two, which they carry for that purpose.

This second day the natives, as said before, brought various articles to barter for such small things as they could procure in exchange. Jewels or metals of any kind were not seen among them, except some small plates of gold which hung from their nostrils; and on being questioned from whence they procured the gold, they answered by signs that they had it from the south, where there was a king who possessed abundance of pieces and vessels of gold; and they made our people

to understand that there were many other islands and large countries to the south and south-west. They were very covetous to get possession of any thing which belonged to the Christians, and being themselves very poor, with nothing of value to give in exchange, as soon as they got on board, if they could lay hold of any thing which struck their fancy, though it were only a piece of a broken glazed earthen dish or porringer, they leaped with it into the sea and swam on shore with their prize. If they brought any thing on board they would barter it for any thing whatever belonging to our people, even for a piece of broken glass; insomuch that some gave sixteen large clews of well spun cotton yarn, weighing twenty-five pounds, for three small pieces of Portuguese brass coin not worth a farthing. Their liberality in dealing did not proceed from their putting any great value on the things themselves which they received from our people in return, but because they valued them as belonging to the Christians, whom they believed certainly to have come down from Heaven, and they therefore earnestly desired to have something from them as a memorial. In this manner all this day was spent, and the islanders as before went all on shore at night.

American Archives. See FORCE, PETER.

American Association, THE. On Oct. 20, 1774, the first Continental Congress adopted a "non-importation, non-consumption, and non-exportation agreement," applied to Great Britain, Ireland, the West Indies, and Madeira, by which the inhabitants of all the colonies were bound to act in good faith as those of certain cities and towns had already done, under the penalty of the displeasure of faithful ones. The agreement was embodied in fourteen articles, and was to go into effect on the 1st of December next ensuing. In the second article, the Congress struck a blow at slavery, in the name of their constituents, declaring that, after the 1st day of December next ensuing, they would neither import nor purchase any slave imported after that date, and they would in no way be concerned in or abet the slave-trade. Committees were to be appointed in every county, city, and town to enforce compliance with the terms of the association. They also resolved that they would hold no commercial intercourse with any colony in North America that did not accede to these terms, or that should thereafter violate them, but hold such recusants as enemies to their common country. The several articles of the association were adopted unanimously, except the one concerning exportations. The South Carolinians objected to it, because it would operate unequally, and insisted upon rice being exempted from the requirement concerning non-exportation. When the article was adopted, all but two of the South Carolina delegation seceded. Gadsden and another, in the spirit of Henry, declared that they were not "South Carolinians," but "Americans." The seceders were brought back, and signed the articles of association after a compromise was agreed to, which allowed their colony to bear no part of the burden of sacrifice imposed by the association. Short letters were addressed to the colonies of St. John (now Prince Edward's), Nova Scotia, Georgia, and the two Floridas, asking them to join the association. Measures were taken in various colonies for enforcing the observance of the American Association. Philadelphia set the example (Nov. 22). New York followed (Nov. 23). Other provinces took measures to the same effect.

American Bible Society. See BIBLE SOCIETY.

American Colonization Society. See COLONIZATION SOCIETY, AMERICAN.

American Learned Societies, most of which are located or have branches in New York City:

ACTUARIAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA.—Organized in 1889 for the purpose of promoting actuarial science. Membership, 130.

ALASKA GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.—Organized 1898. Membership, 1,200.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF MEDICINE.—Present membership, 834.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.—Founded 1889. Members, 2,100.

AMERICAN ANTIQUARIAN SOCIETY.—Domestic membership restricted to 140.

AMERICAN ASIATIC ASSOCIATION.—To promote the trade and commercial interests of the citizens of the United States in Asia and Oceanica. Membership, 260.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.—Chartered in 1874, being a continuation of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists, organized in 1840. Membership, 3,000.

AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION.—Each State is represented by one vice-president. Membership about 1,700. Organized in 1878.

AMERICAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—The society was organized in 1876. Membership, 1,897.

AMERICAN CLIMATOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN DERMATOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.—Organized in 1889. Membership about 325.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.—The objects are the study of economic sciences.

AMERICAN ELECTRO-THERAPEUTIC SOCIETY.

AMERICAN ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Organized 1859; incorporated 1862. Membership, 140.

AMERICAN FISHERIES SOCIETY. — Organized December, 1870. Membership about 275.

AMERICAN FOLK-LORE SOCIETY.—Organized in 1888. Publishes *American Folk-lore.*

AMERICAN FORESTRY ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN GENEALOGICAL SOCIETY.—Object—The promotion of the study of American genealogy.

AMERICAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY. — New York City. Organized in 1852. Membership, 1,200.

AMERICAN GYNECOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.—Founded 1884; incorporated by Congress 1889. Membership, 1,600.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS. — The institute has 26 chapters, 399 fellows, 300 associates, 58 corresponding and 69 honorary members. Organized in 1857.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS.—New York. Membership, 1,350.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF HOMOEOPATHY.—Organized in 1844, and is the oldest medical organization in the United States. Membership, 2,000.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF MINING ENGINEERS. —Membership, 2,897. Organized in 1871.

AMERICAN LARYNGOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.—Organized in 1876. Incorporated in 1879. Membership over 1,000.

AMERICAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY. — New York City. Membership, 375. The society publishes two journals.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.—Publishes a weekly journal. Membership over 11,000.

AMERICAN MICROSCOPICAL SOCIETY.—Organized 1878; incorporated 1891. Membership, 300.

AMERICAN NEUROLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.—New York City.

AMERICAN NUMISMATIC AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Membership, 300.

AMERICAN OPTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY. — Organized Sept. 7, 1842, for the cultivation of learning in the Asiatic, African, and Polynesian languages. Membership, 380.

AMERICAN ORNITHOLOGISTS' UNION. — Membership, 734.

AMERICAN ORTHOPEDIC ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION. — Membership about 550.

AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.—Philadelphia. Object — For promoting useful knowledge. Founded in 1743. Has 200 resident and 300 non-resident members.

AMERICAN PHYSICAL SOCIETY.

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION. — Organized in 1892 for "the advancement of psychology." Membership, 120.

AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.—New York City. Founded in 1865.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.—New York City. Has 2,500 members. Instituted in 1852.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF CURIO COLLECTORS.—Membership, 300.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERS.—Total membership, 2,064. The society was chartered in 1881.

AMERICAN SOCIETY OF NATURALISTS.

AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION.—Membership, 556. Organized 1839.

AMERICAN SURGICAL ASSOCIATION.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA (New York Society).

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN ANATOMISTS.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN PHYSICIANS.

ASTRONOMICAL AND PHYSICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA.

BOTANICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA.

GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA.—Society founded in 1888. Has 245 fellows. Publishes *Bulletin of the Geological Society of America.*

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—New York City. Founded in 1826. 92 National Academicians; 70 associates.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.—The academy, incorporated by act of Congress, March 3, 1863. There are at present 89 members and 28 foreign associates.

NATIONAL ARTS CLUB.—New York City. Organized in 1899.

NATIONAL DENTAL ASSOCIATION.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.—Washington, D. C. 2,800 active members and about 10,000 associates.

NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SOCIETY.—Washington, D. C. It publishes a monthly magazine. There are 2,500 members.

NATIONAL SCULPTURE SOCIETY.—New York City. Incorporated in 1896.

NEW YORK ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—The Zoological Park is under the management of the society.

SCIENTIFIC ALLIANCE OF NEW YORK.—The Council of the Scientific Alliance is composed of three delegates from each of eight scientific societies.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—New York City. Annual exhibition. Members, 110.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN AUTHORS.—Object—The advancement of the interests and the protection of the rights of authors. Membership over 400.

SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY (New York Section).—Membership, 871.

SOCIETY OF NAVAL ARCHITECTS AND MARINE ENGINEERS.—Object—The promotion of the art of ship-building, commercial and naval. Incorporated. Headquarters, New York City. Membership, 775.

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION SOCIETY.—Philadelphia. Incorporated in 1892.

American National Arbitration Board. The industrial department of the National Civic Federation called a conference of the leading capitalists and labor representatives to meet in New York City Dec. 16, 1901. On Dec. 17 the meeting appointed thirty-six representative men to form a permanent board of arbitration. The men selected were:

To Represent Capital. — Marcus A. Hanna, United States Senator; Charles M. Schwab, president of the United States Steel Corporation; S. R. Callaway, president of the American Locomotive Company; Charles A. Moore, president of the American Tool Company; John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Standard Oil Company; H. H. Vreeland, president of the Metropolitan Street Railway; Lewis Nixon, owner of the Crescent Ship-yard, Elizabethport, N. J.; James A. Chambers, president of the American Glass Company, Pittsburg; William H. Pfahler, president of the National Stove Manufacturers' Association, Philadelphia; Julius Kruttschnitt, assistant to the president of the Southern Pacific Railroad; E. P. Ripley, president of the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe Railroad; Marcus M. Marks, president of the National Association of Clothing Manufacturers.

To Represent Labor.—Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor; John Mitchell, president of the United Mine Workers of America; Frank P. Sargent, grand-master of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen; Theodore P. Shaffer, president of the Amalgamated Association of Iron, Steel, and Tin Workers; James J. Duncan, first vice-president of the American Federation of Labor; Daniel J. Keefe, president of the International Association of Longshoremen; Martin Fox, president of the Iron Moulders of America; James E. Lynch, president of the International Typographical Union; E. E. Clark, grand conductor of the Association of Railway Conductors; Henry White, secretary of the Garment Workers of America; Walter Macarthur, editor of the *Coast Seamen's Journal* of San Francisco; James O'Connell, president of the International Association of Machinists.

To Represent the Public. — Grover Cleveland, former President of the United States; Cornelius N. Bliss, former Secretary of the Interior; Charles Francis Adams, president of the Union Pacific Railroad; Bishop Henry C. Potter, of New York; Archbishop John Ireland, of St. Paul; Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard University; Franklin Macveagh, wholesale grocer, of Chicago; James H. Eckels, bank president, Chicago; John J. McCook, lawyer; John G. Milburn, lawyer, of Buffalo; Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore; Oscar S. Strauss, merchant, and former minister to Turkey; secretary of the commission, Ralph M. Easley, of the National Civic Federation.

The committee met Dec. 18 and passed the following resolutions:

That this committee shall be known as the Industrial Department of the National Civic Federation.

That the scope and province of this department shall be to do what may seem best to promote industrial peace; to be helpful in establishing rightful relations between employers and workers; by its good offices to endeavor to obviate and prevent strikes and lockouts; to aid in renewing industrial relations where a rupture has occurred.

That at all times representatives of employers and workers, organized or unorganized, should confer for the adjustment of difficulties or disputes before an acute stage is reached, and thus avoid or minimize the number of strikes and lockouts.

That mutual agreements as to conditions under which labor shall be performed should be encouraged, and that when agreements are made the terms thereof should be faithfully adhered to, both in letter and spirit, by both parties.

That this department, either as a whole or a subcommittee by it appointed, shall, when required, act as a forum to adjust and decide upon questions at issue between workers and their employers, provided in its opinion the subject is one of sufficient importance.

That this department will not consider abstract industrial problems.

That this department assumes no power of arbitration unless such powers be conferred by both parties to a dispute.

That this department shall adopt a set of by-laws for its government.

Senator Hanna was chosen chairman. The other officers are: Samuel Gompers and Oscar Strauss, vice-chairmen; Charles A. Moore, treasurer, and Ralph M. Easley, secretary.

American Party, a political organization, founded in 1854, the members of which became known as "Know-nothings," because in their endeavors to preserve the secrecy of their movements they were instructed to reply "I don't know" to any question asked in reference to the party. It was at first a secret political organization, the chief object of which was the proscription of foreigners by the repeal of the naturalization laws of the United States, and the exclusive choice of Americans for office. The more radical members of the party advocated a purely American school system, and uncompromising opposition to the Roman Catholics. Such narrow views were incompatible with the generosity and catholic spirit of enlightened American citizens. In 1856 they nominated ex-President Fillmore for the Presidency, who received 874,534 popular and eight electoral votes; made no nominations in 1860, but united with the Constitutional Union party, whose candidates, Bell and Everett, received 590,631 popular and thirty-nine electoral votes; reappeared with a ticket in 1880, which received 707 popular votes; and again in 1888, when 1,591 votes were cast for the party candidates in California; and have made no nominations since. See KNOW-NOTHING PARTY.

American Protective Association, a secret organization which acquired notoriety first in 1890–95, and according to popular belief was opposed to the Catholic Church. According to W. J. H. Traynor, its president, "it is neither a religious body nor an institution adverse to the religion, *per se*, of any person, sect, or faith."

American School of Classical Studies, an institution founded in Athens, Greece, in 1882. It is a branch of the Archæological Institute of America, and is supported through an independent committee of representatives from a number of American colleges, each of which contributes $250 a year for this purpose. It was erected by private subscriptions, upon a site given by the Greek government, and is valued, together with its grounds, at $46,000. The endowment is about $50,000. Aside from the study of known remains of Greek art and civilization, the school has engaged in independent excavations at Eretria and Argos, with valuable results. Associated with it are similar institutions supported by the German, English, French, and Greek governments.

American System, a phrase used to express the policy of protection to home industries by means of duties on imports; applied by Henry Clay to his scheme for protective duties and internal improvements, which resulted in the enactment of the tariff bill of 1824. See FREE TRADE; PROTECTION.

America's Cup, the popular name of a yachting trophy originally called the Queen's Cup, which was offered by the Royal Yacht Squadron of England in a competition open to the yachts of all nations in 1851. The cup was won by the Boston-built schooner-yacht *America*. Since then there were challenge contests

AMERICA'S CUP.

in 1870, 1871, 1876, 1881, 1885, 1886, 1887, 1893, 1895, 1899, 1901, and 1903, and in each instance the cup was defended with success. In 1895, Lord Dunraven's yacht, *Valkyrie*, after having been defeated in one race, won the second, but was deprived of the victory because of a foul. The Englishman claimed that he had been cheated, and refused to race again. He charged the American yachtsmen with unsportsmanlike conduct, and visited this country to press his charges. His complaints were dismissed and he was dropped from the list of members of the New York Yacht Club, under whose auspices the races had been held. One of the most notable of the several contests was that in 1903, when Sir Thomas Lipton sailed the *Shamrock III.* against the American defender *Reliance*. The contest was characterized by the highest type of international courtesy and good feeling, although the *Shamrock III.* had a series of mishaps and in the third race was unable to finish.

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS

Americus Vespucius, navigator; born in Florence, March 9, 1451. When Columbus was in Seville preparing for his second voyage, Vespucius was there as a commercial agent of the Medici family of Florence, and he became personally acquainted with the discoverer. That acquaintance

AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.

inspired the Florentine with an ardent desire to make a voyage to the newly found continent, and he was gratified when, in 1499, he sailed from Spain with Alonzo de Ojeda as an adventurer and self-constituted geographer of the expedition. Ojeda followed the track of Columbus in his third voyage, and discovered mountains in South America when off the coast of Surinam. He ran up the coast to the mouth of the Orinoco River (where Columbus had discovered the continent the year before), passed along the coast of Venezuela, crossed the Caribbean Sea to Santo Domingo, kidnapped some natives of the Antilles, and returned to Spain in June, 1500, and sold his victims for slaves to Spanish grandees. In May, 1501, Vespucius, then in the service of the King of Portugal, sailed on his second voyage to America, exploring the coast of Brazil. In 1503 he commanded a caravel in a squadron destined for America, but parted company with the other vessels, and off the coast of Brazil discovered the Bay of All-Saints. He then ran along the coast 260 leagues, and, taking in a cargo of Brazil wood, returned to Lisbon in 1504. He entered the Spanish service again in 1505, was made chief pilot of the realm, and again voyaged to America. In 1504 Vespucius, in a letter to the Duke of Lorraine, gave an account of his four voyages to the New World, in which was given the date of May 29, 1497, as the time when he sailed on his first voyage. That was a year earlier than the discovery of the continent of South America by Columbus and of North America by Cabot, and made it appear that Vespucius was the first discoverer. After the death of Columbus, in 1506, a friend of Vespucius proposed to the Academy of Cosmography at Strasburg, upon the authority of the falsely dated letter, to give the name "America" to the Western Continent in compliment to its "first discoverer." It was done, and so Columbus and Cabot were both deprived of the honor of having their names associated with the title of this continent by fraud. Vespucius died in Seville, Feb. 22, 1512.

His First Voyage.—He started from Cadiz on May 10, 1497, and returned to that city on Oct. 15, 1498. His letter to Pier Soderini, gonfalonier of the republic of Florence, is as follows:

Magnificent Lord. After humble reverence and due commendations, etc. It may be that your Magnificence will be surprised by (*this conjunction of*) my rashness and your customary wisdom, in that I should so absurdly bestir myself to write to your Magnificence, the present so-prolix letter; knowing (*as I do*) that your Magnificence is continually employed in high councils and affairs concerning the good government of this sublime Republic. And will hold me not only presumptuous, but also idly-meddlesome in setting myself to write things, neither suitable to your station, nor entertaining, and written in barbarous style, and outside of every canon of polite literature: but my confidence which I have in your virtues and in the truth of my writing, which are things (*that*) are not found written neither by the ancients nor by modern writers, as your Magnificence will in the sequel perceive, make me bold. The chief cause which moved (*me*) to write to you, was at the request of the present bearer, who is named Benvenuto Benvenuti our Florentine (*fellow-citizen*), very much, as it is proven, your Magnificence's servant, and my very good friend: who happening to be here in this city of Lisbon, begged that I should make communication to your Magnificence of the things seen by me in divers regions of the world, by virtue of four voyages which I have made in discovery of new lands; two by order of the king of Castile, King Don Ferrando VI., across the great gulf of the Ocean-sea, towards the west: and the other two by command of the puissant King Don Manuel King of Portugal, towards the south: Telling me that your Magnificence would take pleasure thereof, and that herein he hoped to do you service: wherefore I set me to do it: because I am assured that your Magnificence holds me in the number of your servants, remembering that in the time of our youth I was your friend, and now (*am your*) servant: and (*remembering our*) going to hear the rudiments of grammar under the fair example and instruction of the venerable monk friar of Saint Mark Fra Giorgio Antonio Vespucci: whose counsels and teaching would to God that I had followed: for as saith Petrarch, I should be another man than what I am. Howbeit soever, I grieve not: because I have ever taken delight in worthy matters: and although these trifles of mine may not be suitable to your virtues, I will say to you as said Pliny to Mæcenas, you were sometime wont to take pleasure in my prattlings: even though your Magnificence be continuously busied in public affairs, you will take some hour of relaxation to consume a little time in frivolous or amusing things: and as fennel is customarily given atop of delicious viands to fit them for better digestion, so may you, for a relief from your so heavy occupations, order this letter of mine to be read: so that they may withdraw you somewhat from the continual anxiety and assiduous reflection upon public affairs: and if I shall be prolix, I crave pardon, my Magnificent Lord. Your Magnificence shall know that the motive of my coming into this realm of Spain was to traffic in merchandise: and that I pursued this intent about four years: during which I saw and knew the inconstant shiftings of Fortune: and how she kept changing those frail and transitory benefits; and how at one time she holds man on the summit of the wheel, and at another time drives him back from her, and despoils him of what may be called his borrowed riches: so that, knowing the continuous toil which man undergoes to win them, submitting himself to so many anxieties and risks, I resolved to abandon trade, and to fix my aim upon something more praiseworthy and stable: whence it was that I made preparation for going to see part of the world and its wonders: and herefor the time and place presented themselves most opportunely to me: which was that the King Don Ferrando of Castile being about to despatch four ships to discover new lands towards the west, I was chosen by his Highness to go in that fleet to aid in making discovery: and we set out from the port of Cadiz on the 10 day of May 1497, and took our route through the great gulph of the Ocean-sea: in which voyage we were eighteen months (*engaged*): and discov-

ered much continental land and innumerable islands, and great part of them inhabited; whereas there is no mention made by the ancient writers of them: I believe, because they had no knowledge thereof: for, if I remember well, I have read in some one (*of those writers*) that he considered that this Ocean-sea was an unpeopled sea: and of this opinion was Dante our poet in the xxvi. chapter of the Inferno, where he feigns the death of Ulysses: in which voyage I beheld things of great wondrousness as your Magnificence shall understand. As I said above, we left the port of Cadiz four consort ships: and began our voyage in direct course to the Fortunate Isles, which are called to-day *la gran Canaria*, which are situated in the Ocean-sea at the extremity of the inhabited west, (*and*) set in the third climate: over which the North Pole has an elevation of 27 and a half degrees beyond their horizon: and they are 280 leagues distant from this city of Lisbon, by the wind between *mezzo di* and *libeccio:* where we remained eight days, taking in provision of water, and wood and other necessary things: and from here, having said our prayers, we weighed anchor, and gave the sails to the wind, beginning our course to westward, taking one quarter by south-west: and so we sailed on till at the end of 37 days we reached a land which we deemed to be a continent: which is distant westwardly from the isles of Canary about a thousand leagues beyond the inhabited region within the torrid zone: for we found the North Pole at an elevation of 16 degrees above its horizon, and (*it was*) westward, according to the shewing of our instruments, 75 degrees from the isles of Canary: whereat we anchored with our ships a league and a half from land: and we put out our boats freighted with men and arms: we made towards the land, and before we reached it, had sight of a great number of people who were going along the shore: by which we were much rejoiced: and we observed that they were a naked race: they shewed themselves to stand in fear of us: I believe (*it was*) because they saw us clothed and of other appearance (*than their own*): they all withdrew to a hill, and for whatsoever signals we made to them of peace and of friendliness, they would not come to parley with us: so that, as the night was now coming on, and as the ships were anchored in a dangerous place, being on a rough and shelterless coast, we decided to remove from there the next day, and to go in search of some harbour or bay, where we might place our ships in safety: and we sailed with the maestrale wind, thus running along the coast with the land ever in sight, continually in our course observing people along the shore: till after having navigated for two days, we found a place sufficiently secure for the ships, and anchored half a league from land, on which we saw a very great number of people: and this same day we put to land with the boats, and sprang on shore full 40 men in good trim: and still the land's people appeared shy of converse with us, and we were unable to encourage them so much as to make them come to speak with us: and this day we laboured so greatly in giving them of our wares, such as rattles and mirrors, beads, *spalline*, and other trifles, that some of them took confidence and came to discourse with us: and after having made good friends with them, the night coming on, we took our leave of them and returned to the ships: and the next day when the dawn appeared we saw that there were infinite numbers of people upon the beach, and they had their women and children with them: we went ashore, and found that they were all laden with their worldly goods which are suchlike as, in its (*proper*) place, shall be related: and before we reached the land, many of them jumped into the sea and came swimming to receive us at a bowshot's length (*from the shore*), for they are very great swimmers, with as much confidence as if they had for a long time been acquainted with us: and we were pleased with this their confidence. For so much as we learned of their manner of life and customs, it was that they go entirely naked, as well the men as the women. . . . They are of medium stature, very well proportioned: their flesh is of a colour that verges into red like a lion's mane: and I believe that if they were clothed, they would be as white as we: they have not any hair upon the body, except the hair of the head which is long and black, and especially in the women, whom it renders handsome; in

aspect they are not very good-looking, because they have broad faces, so that they seem Tartar-like: they let no hair grow on their eyebrows, nor on their eyelids, nor elsewhere except the hair of the head: for they hold hairness to be a filthy thing: they are very light-footed in walking and in running, as well the men as the women: so that a woman recks nothing of running a league or two, as many times we saw them do: and herein they have a very great advantage over us Christians: they swim (*with an expertness*) beyond all belief, and the women better than the men: for we have many times found and seen them swimming two leagues out at sea without anything to rest upon. Their arms are bows and arrows very well made, save that (*the arrows*) are not (*tipped*) with iron or any other kind of hard metal: and instead of iron they put animals' or fishes' teeth, or a spike of tough wood, with the point hardened by fire: they are sure marksmen for they hit whatever they aim at: and in some places the women use these bows: they have other weapons, such as fire-hardened spears, and also clubs with knobs, beautifully carved. Warfare is used amongst them, which they carry on against people not of their own language, very cruelly, without granting life to any one, except (*to reserve him*) for greater suffering. When they go to war, they take their women with them, not that these may fight, but because they carry behind them their worldly goods, for a woman carries on her back for thirty or forty leagues a load which no man could bear: as we have many times seen them do. They are not accustomed to have any Captain, nor do they go in any ordered array, for everyone is lord of himself: and the cause of their wars is not for lust of dominion, nor of extending their frontiers, nor for inordinate covetousness, but for some ancient enmity which in by-gone times arose amongst them: and when asked why they made war, they knew not any other reason to give than that they did so to avenge the death of their ancestors, or of their parents: these people have neither King, nor Lord, nor do they yield obedience to any one, for they live in their own liberty: and how they be stirred up to go to war is (*this*) that when the enemies have slain or captured any of them, his oldest kinsman rises up and goes about the highways haranguing them to go with him and avenge the death of such his kinsman: and so are they stirred up by fellow-feeling: they have no judicial system, nor do they punish the ill-doer: nor does the father, nor the mother chastise the children: and marvellously (*seldom*) or never did we see any dispute among them: in their conversation they appear simple, and they are very cunning and acute in that which concerns them: they speak little and in a low tone: they use the same articulations as we, since they form their utterances either with the palate, or with the teeth, or on the lips: except that they give different names to things. Many are the varieties of tongues: for in every 100 leagues we found a change of language, so that they are not understandable each to the other. The manner of their living is very barbarous, for they do not eat at certain hours, and as oftentimes as they will: and it is not much of a boon to them that the will may come more at midnight than by day, for they eat at all hours: and they eat upon the ground without a table-cloth or any other cover, for they have their meats either in earthen basins which they make themselves, or in the halves of pumpkins: they sleep in certain very large nettings made of cotton, suspended in the air: and although this their (*fashion of*) sleeping may seem uncomfortable, I say that it is sweet to sleep in those (*nettings*): and we slept better in them than in the counterpanes. They are a people smooth and clean of body, because of so continually washing themselves as they do. . . . Amongst those people we did not learn that they had any law, nor can they be called Moors nor Jews, and (*they are*) worse than pagans: because we did not observe that they offered any sacrifice: nor even had they a house of prayer: their manner of living I judge to be Epicurean: their dwellings are in common: and their houses (*are*) made in the style of huts, but strongly made, and constructed with very large trees, and covered over with palm-leaves, secure against storms and winds: and in some places (*they are*) of so great breadth and length, that in one single house we found there were 600

souls: and we saw a village of only thirteen houses, where there were four thousand souls: every eight or ten days they change their habitations: and when asked why they did so: (*they said it was*) because of the soil which, from its filthiness, was already unhealthy and corrupted, and that it bred aches in their bodies, which seemed to us a good reason; their riches consist of birds' plumes of many colours, or of rosaries which they make from fish-bones, or of white or green stones which they put in their cheeks and in their lips and ears, and of many other things which we in no wise value: they use no trade, they neither buy nor sell. In fine, they live and are contented with that which nature gives them. The wealth that we enjoy in this our Europe and elsewhere, such as gold, jewels, pearls, and other riches, they hold as nothing: and although they have them in their own lands, they do not labour to obtain them, nor do they value them. They are liberal in giving, for it is rarely they deny you anything: and on the other hand, liberal in asking, when they shew themselves your friends. . . . When they die, they use divers manners of obsequies, and some they bury with water and victuals at their heads: thinking that they shall have (*whereof*) to eat: they have not nor do they use ceremonies of torches nor of lamentation. In some other places, they use the most barbarous and inhuman burial which is that when a suffering or infirm (*person*) is as it were at the last pass of death, his kinsmen carry him into a large forest, and attach one of those nets of theirs, in which they sleep, to two trees, and then put him in it, and dance around him for a whole day: and when the night comes on they place at his bolster, water with other victuals, so that he may be able to subsist for four or six days: and then they leave him alone and return to the village: and if the sick man helps himself, and eats, and drinks, and survives, he returns to the village, and (*friends*) receive him with ceremony: but few are they who escape: without receiving any further visit they die, and that is their sepulture: and they have many other customs which for prolixity are not related. They use in their sicknesses various forms of medicines, so different from ours that we marvelled how any one escaped: for many times I saw that with a man sick of fever, when it heightened upon him, they bathed him from head to foot with a large quantity of cold water: then they lit a great fire around him, making him turn and turn again every two hours, until they tired him and left him to sleep, and many were (*thus*) cured: with this they make use of dieting, for they remain three days without eating, and also of blood-letting, but not from the arm, only from the thighs and the loins and the calf of the leg: also they provoke vomiting with their herbs which are put into the mouth: and they use many other remedies which it would be long to relate: they are much vitiated in the phlegm and in the blood because of their food which consists chiefly of roots of herbs, and fruits and fish: they have no seed of wheat nor other grain: and for their ordinary use and feeding, they have a root of a tree, from which they make flour, tolerably good, and they call it Iuca, and another which they call Cazabi, and another Ignami: they eat little flesh except human flesh: for your Magnificence must know that herein they are so inhuman that they outdo every custom (*even*) of beasts; for they eat all their enemies whom they kill or capture, as well females as males with so much savagery, that (*merely*) to relate it appears a horrible thing: how much more so to see it, as, infinite times and in many places, it was my hap to see it: and they wondered to hear us say that we did not eat our enemies: and this your Magnificence may take for certain, that their other barbarous customs are such that expression is too weak for the reality: and as in these four voyages I have seen so many things diverse from our customs, I prepared to write a common-place-book which I name Le quattro Giornate: in which I have set down the greater part of the things which I saw, sufficiently in detail, so far as my feeble wit has allowed me: which I have not yet published, because I have so ill a taste for my own things that I do not relish those which I have written, notwithstanding that many encourage me to publish it: therein everything will be seen in detail: so that I shall not enlarge further in this chapter:

as in the course of the letter we shall come to many other things which are particular: let this suffice for the general. At this beginning, we saw nothing in the land of much profit, except some show of gold: I believe the cause of it was that we did not know the language: but in so far as concerns the situation and condition of the land, it could not be better: we decided to leave that place, and to go further on, continuously coasting the shore: upon which we made frequent descents, and held converse with a great number of people: and at the end of some days we went into a harbour where we underwent very great danger: and it pleased the Holy Ghost to save us: and it was in this wise. We landed in a harbour, where we found a village built like Venice upon the water: there were about 44 large dwellings in the form of huts erected upon very thick piles, and they had their doors or entrances in the style of drawbridges: and from each house one could pass through all, by means of the drawbridges which stretched from house to house: and when the people thereof had seen us, they appeared to be afraid of us, and immediately drew up all the bridges: and while we were looking at this strange action, we saw coming across the sea about 22 canoes, which are a kind of boat of theirs, constructed from a single tree: which came towards our boats, as they had been surprised by our appearance and clothes, and kept wide of us: and thus remaining, we made signals to them that they should approach us, encouraging them with every token of friendliness; and seeing that they did not come we went to them, and they did not stay for us, but made to the land, and, by signs, told us to wait, and they should soon return: and they went to a hill in the background, and did not delay long: when they returned they led with them 16 of their girls, and entered with these into their canoes, and came to the boats: and in each boat they put 4 of the girls. That we marvelled at this behaviour your Magnificence can imagine how much, and they placed themselves with their canoes among our boats, coming to speak with us: insomuch that we deemed it a mark of friendliness: and while thus engaged, we beheld a great number of people advance swimming towards us across the sea, who came from the houses: and as they were drawing near to us without any apprehension; just then there appeared at the doors of the houses certain old women uttering very loud cries and tearing their hair to exhibit grief: whereby they made us suspicious, and we each betook ourselves to arms: and instantly the girls whom we had in the boats, threw themselves into the sea, and the men of the canoes drew away from us, and began with their bows to shoot arrows at us: and those who were swimming each carried a lance held, as covertly as they could, beneath the water: so that, recognizing the treachery, we engaged with them, not merely to defend ourselves, but to attack them vigorously, and we overturned with our boats many of their almadie or canoes, for so they call them, we made a slaughter (*of them*), and they all flung themselves into the water to swim, leaving their canoes abandoned, with considerable loss on their side, they went swimming away to the shore: there died of them about 15 or 20, and many were left wounded: and of ours 5 were wounded, and all, by the grace of God, escaped (*death*): we captured two of the girls and two men: and we proceeded to their houses, and entered therein, and in them all we found nothing else than two old women and a sick man: we took away from them many things, but of small value: and we would not burn their houses, because it seemed to us (*as though that would be*) a burden upon our conscience: and we returned to our boats with five prisoners: and betook ourselves to the ships, and put a pair of irons on the feet of each of the captives, except the little girls: and when the night came on, the two girls and one of the men fled away in the most subtle manner possible: and the next day we decided to quit that harbour and go further onwards: we proceeded continuously skirting the coast, (*until*) we had sight of another tribe distant perhaps some 80 leagues from the former tribe: and we found them very different in speech and customs: we resolved to cast anchor, and went ashore with the boats, and we saw on the beach a great number of people amounting probably to 4,000 souls: and when we had reached the shore, they did not stay for us,

but betook themselves to flight through the forests, abandoning their things: we jumped on land, and took a pathway that led to the forest: and at the distance of a bow-shot we found their tents, where they had made very large fires, and two (*of them*) were cooking their victuals, and roasting several animals and fish of many kinds: where we saw that they were roasting a certain animal which seemed to be a serpent, save that it had no wings, and was in its appearance so loathsome that we marvelled much at its savageness: Thus went we on through their houses, or rather tents, and found many of those serpents alive, and they were tied by the feet and had a cord around their snouts, so that they could not open their mouths, as is done (*in Europe*) with mastiff-dogs so that they may not bite: they were of such savage aspect that none of us dared to take one away, thinking that they were poisonous: they are of the bigness of a kid, and in length an ell and a half: their feet are long and thick, and armed with big claws: they have a hard skin, and are of various colours: they have the muzzle and face of a serpent: and from their snouts there rises a crest like a saw which extends along the middle of the back as far as the tip of the tail: in fine we deemed them to be serpents and venomous, and (*nevertheless, those people*) ate them: we found that they made bread out of little fishes which they took from the sea, first boiling them (*then*) pounding them, and making thereof a paste, or bread, and they baked them on the embers: thus did they eat them: we tried it and found that it was good: they had so many other kinds of eatables, and especially of fruits and roots, that it would be a large matter to describe them in detail: and seeing that the people did not return, we decided not to touch nor take away anything of their, so as better to reassure them: and we left in the tents for them many of our things, placed where they should see them, and returned by night to our ships: and the next day, when it was light we saw on the beach an infinite number of people: and we landed: and although they appeared timorous towards us, they took courage nevertheless to hold converse with us, giving us whatever we asked of them: and shewing themselves very friendly towards us, they told us that those were their dwellings, and that they had come hither for the purpose of fishing: and they begged that we would visit their dwellings and villages, because they desired to receive us as friends: and they engaged in such friendship because of the two captured men whom we had with us, as these were their enemies: insomuch that, in view of such importunity on their part, holding a council, we determined that 28 of us Christians in good array should go with them, and in the firm resolve to die if it should be necessary: and after we had been here some three days, we went with them inland: and at three leagues from the coast we came to a village of many people and few houses, for there were no more than nine (*of these*): where we were received with such and so many barbarous ceremonies that the pen suffices not to write them down: for there were dances, and songs, and lamentations mingled with rejoicing, and great quantities of food: and here we remained the night: . . . and after having been here that night and half the next day, so great was the number of people who came wondering to behold us that they were beyond counting: and the most aged begged us to go with them to other villages which were further inland, making display of doing us the greatest honour: wherefore we decided to go: and it would be impossible to tell you how much honour they did us: and we went to several villages, so that we were nine days journeying, so that our Christians who had remained with the ships were already apprehensive concerning us: and when we were about 18 leagues in the interior of the land, we resolved to return to the ships: and on our way back, such was the number of people, as well men as women, that came with us as far as the sea, that it was a wondrous thing: and if any of us became weary of the march, they carried us in their nets very refreshingly: and in crossing the rivers, which are many and very large, they passed us over by skilful means so securely that we ran no danger whatever, and many of them came laden with the things which they had given us, which consisted in their sleeping-nets, and very rich feathers, many bows and arrows, innumerable

popin-jays of divers colours: and others brought with them loads of their household goods, and of animals: but a greater marvel which I tell you, that, when we had to cross a river, he deemed himself lucky who was able to carry us on his back: and when we reached the sea, our boats having arrived, we entered into them: and so great was the struggle which they made to get into our boats, and to come to see our ships, that we marvelled (*thereat*): and in our boats we took as many of them as we could, and made our way to the ships, and so many (*others*) came swimming that we found ourselves embarrassed in seeing so many people in the ships, for there were over a thousand persons all naked and unarmed: they were amazed by our (*nautical*) gear and contrivances, and the size of the ships: and with them there occurred to us a very laughable affair, which was that we decided to fire off some of our great guns, and when the explosion took place, most of them through fear cast themselves (*into the sea*) to swim, not otherwise than frogs on the margins of a pond, when they see something that frightens them, will jump into the water, just so did those people: and those who remained in the ships were so terrified that we regretted our action: however we reassured them by telling them that with those arms we slew our enemies: and when they had amused themselves in the ships the whole day, we told them to go away because we desired to depart that night, and so separating from us with much friendship and love, they went away to land. Amongst that people and in their land, I knew and beheld so many of their customs and ways of living, that I do not care to enlarge upon them: for Your Magnificence must know that in each of my voyages I have noted the most wonderful things, and I have indited it all in a volume after the manner of a geography: and I entitle it "Le quattro Giornate": in which work the things are comprised in detail, and as yet there is no copy of it given out, as it is necessary for me to revise it. This land is very populous, and full of inhabitants, and of numberless rivers, (*and*) animals: few (*of which*) resemble ours, excepting lions, panthers, stags, pigs, goats, and deer; and even these have some dissimilarities of form: they have no horses nor mules, nor, saving your reverence, asses nor dogs, nor any kind of sheep or oxen: but so numerous are the other animals which they have, and all are savage, and of none do they make use for their service, that they could not be counted. What shall we say of others (*such as*) birds? which are so numerous, and of so many kinds, and of such various-coloured plumages, that it is a marvel to behold them. The soil is very pleasant and fruitful, full of immense woods and forests: and it is always green, for the foliage never drops off. The fruits are so many that they are numberless and entirely different from ours. This land is within the torrid zone, close to or just under the parallel described by the Tropic of Cancer: where the pole of the horizon has an elevation of 23 degrees, at the extremity of the second climate. Many tribes came to see us, and wondered at our faces and our whiteness: and they asked us whence we came: and we gave them to understand that we had come from heaven, and that we were going to see the world, and they believed it. In this land we placed baptismal fonts, and an infinite (*number of*) people were baptised, and they called us in their language Carabi, which means men of great wisdom. We took our departure from that port: and the province is called Lariab: and we navigated along the coast, always in sight of land, until we had run 870 leagues of it, still going in the direction of the maestrale (*north-west*) making in our course many halts, and holding intercourse with many peoples: and in several places we obtained gold by barter but not much in quantity, for we had done enough in discovering the land and learning that they had gold. We had now been thirteen months on the voyage: and the vessels and the tackling were already much damaged, and the men worn out by fatigue: we decided by general council to haul our ships on land and examine them for the purpose of stanching leaks, as they made much water, and of caulking and tarring them afresh, and (*then*) returning towards Spain: and when we came to this determination, we were close to a harbour the best in the world: into which we entered with our vessels: where we found an immense num-

ber of people: who received us with much friendliness: and on the shore we made a bastion with our boats and with barrels and casks, and our artillery, which commanded every point: and our ships having been unloaded and lightened, we drew them upon land, and repaired them in everything that was needful: and the land's people gave us very great assistance: and continually furnished us with their victuals: so that in this port we tasted little of our own, which suited our game well: for the stock of provisions which we had for our return-passage was little and of sorry kind: where (*i.e., there*) we remained 37 days: and went many times to their villages where they paid us the greatest honour: and (*now*) desiring to depart upon our voyage, they made complaint to us how at certain times of the year there came from over the sea to this their land, a race of people very cruel, and enemies of theirs: and (*who*) by means of treachery or of violence slew many of them, and ate them: and some they made captives, and carried them away to their houses, or country: and how they could scarcely contrive to defend themselves from them, making signs to us that (*those*) were an island-people and lived out in the sea about a hundred leagues away: and so piteously did they tell us this that we believed them: and we promised to avenge them of so much wrong: and they remained overjoyed herewith: and many of them offered to come along with us, but we did not wish to take them for many reasons, save that we took seven of them, on condition that they should come (*i. e., return home*) afterwards in (*their own*) canoes because we did not desire to be obliged to take them back to their country: and they were contented: and so we departed from those people, leaving them very friendly towards us: and having repaired our ships, and sailing for seven days out to sea between north-east and east: and at the end of the seven days we came upon the islands, which were many, some (*of them*) inhabited, and others deserted: and we anchored at one of them: where we saw a numerous people who called it Iti: and having manned our boats with strong crews, and (*taken ammunition for*) three cannon-shots in each, we made for land: where we found (*assembled*) about 400 men, and many women, and all naked like the former (*peoples*). They were of good bodily presence, and seemed right warlike men: for they were armed with their weapons, which are bows, arrows, and lances: and most of them had square wooden targets and bore them in such wise that they did not impede the drawing of the bow: and when we had come with our boats to about a bowshot of the land, they all sprang into the water to shoot their arrows at us and to prevent us from leaping upon shore: and they had all their bodies painted of various colours, and (*were*) plumed with feathers: and the interpreters who were with us told us that when (*those*) displayed themselves so painted and plumed, it was to betoken that they wanted to fight: and so much did they persist in preventing us from landing, that we were compelled to play with our artillery: and when they heard the explosion, and saw one of them fall dead, they all drew back to the land: wherefore, forming our council, we resolved that 42 of our men should spring on shore, and, if they waited for us, fight them: thus having leaped to land, with our weapons, they advanced towards us, and we fought for about an hour, for we had but little advantage of them, except that our arbalasters and gunners killed some of them, and they wounded certain of our men: and this was because they did not stand to receive us within reach of lance-thrust for sword-blow: and so much vigour did we put forth at last, that we came to sword-play, and when they tasted our weapons, they betook themselves to flight through the mountains and the forests, and left us conquerors of the field with many of them dead and a good number wounded: and for that day we took no other pains to pursue them, because we were very weary, and we returned to our ships, with so much gladness on the part of the seven men who had come with us that they could not contain themselves (*for joy*): and when the next day arrived, we beheld coming across the land a great number of people, with signals of battle, continually sounding horns, and various other instruments which they use in their wars: and all (*of them*) painted and feathered, so that it was a very strange sight to be-

hold them: wherefore all the ships held council, and it was resolved that since this people desired hostility with us, we should proceed to encounter them and try by every means to make them friends: in case they would not have our friendship, that we should treat them as foes, and so many of them as we might be able to capture should all be our slaves: and having armed ourselves as best we could, we advanced towards the shore, and they sought not to hinder us from landing, I believe from fear of the cannons: and we jumped on land, 57 men in four squadrons, each one (*consisting of*) a captain and his company: and we came to blows with them: and after a long battle (*in which*) many of them (*were*) slain, we put them to flight, and pursued them to a village, having made about 250 of them captives, and we burnt the village, and returned to our ships with victory and 250 prisoners, leaving many of them dead and wounded, and of ours there were no more than one killed, and 22 wounded, who all escaped (*i. e., recovered*), God be thanked. We arranged our departure, and seven men, of whom five were wounded, took an island-canoe, and with seven prisoners that we gave them, four women and three men, returned to their (*own*) country full of gladness, wondering at our strength: and we thereon made sail for Spain with 222 captive slaves: and reached the port of Calis (*Cadiz*) on the 15th day of October, 1498, where we were well received and sold our slaves. Such is what befell me, most noteworthy, in this my first voyage.

His Third Voyage.—The following is his account of his third voyage, as detailed in letters to (1) Pier Soderini, and (2) Lorenzo Pietro Francesco de' Medici.

1.

Being afterwards in Seville, resting from so many labors that I had endured during these two voyages, and intending to return to the land of pearls, Fortune showed that she was not content with these my labors. I know not how there came into the thoughts of the Most Serene King Don Manuel of Portugal the wish to have my services. But being at Seville, without any thought of going to Portugal, a messenger came to me with a letter from the Royal Crown, in which I was asked to come to Lisbon, to confer with his Highness, who promised to show me favor. I was not inclined to go, and I despatched the messenger with a reply that I was not well, but that, when I had recovered, if his Highness still wished for my services, I would come as soon as he might send for me. Seeing that he could not have me, he arranged to send Giuliano di Bartholomeo di Giocondo for me, he being in Lisbon, with instructions that, come what might, he should bring me. The said Giuliano came to Seville, and prayed so hard that I was forced to go. My departure was taken ill by many who knew me, for I left Castile where honor was done me, and where the King held me in good esteem. It was worse that I went without bidding farewell to my host.

When I was presented to that King, he showed his satisfaction that I had come, and asked me to go in company with three of his ships that were ready to depart for the discovery of new lands. As the request of a king is a command, I had to consent to whatever he asked; and we sailed from this port of Lisbon with three ships on the 10th of March, 1501, shaping our course direct for the island of Grand Canary. We passed without sighting it, and continued along the west coast of Africa. On this coast we made our fishery of a sort of fish called *parchi*. We remained three days, and then came to a port on the coast of Ethiopia called *Beseechicce*, which is within the Torrid Zone, the North Pole rising above it 14° 30′, situated in the first climate. Here we remained two days, taking in wood and water; for my intention was to shape a course towards the south in the Atlantic Gulf. We departed from this port of Ethiopia, and steered to the south-west, taking a quarter point to the south until, after sixty-seven days, we came in sight of land, which was 700 leagues from the said port to the south-west. In those sixty-seven days we had the worst time that man ever endured who navigated the seas, owing to the rains, perturbations, and storms that we encountered. The season was very contrary to us, by reason of the course of our navigation being continually in contact with the equinoctial line, where, in the month of June,

it is winter. We found that the day and the night were equal, and that the shadow was always towards the south.

It pleased God to show us a new land on the 17th of August, and we anchored at a distance of half a league, and got our boats out. We then went to see the land, whether it was inhabited, and what it was like. We found that it was inhabited by people who were worse than animals. But your Magnificence must understand that we did not see them at first, though we were convinced that the country was inhabited, by many signs observed by us. We took possession for that Most Serene King, and found the land to be very pleasant and fertile, and of good appearance. It was 5° to the south of the equinoctial line. We went back to the ships; and, as we were in great want of wood and water, we determined, next day, to return to the shore, with the object of obtaining what we wanted. Being on shore, we saw some people at the top of a hill, who were looking at us, but without showing any intention of coming down. They were naked, and of the same color and form as the others we had seen. We tried to induce them to come and speak with us, but did not succeed, as they would not trust us. Seeing their obstinacy, and it being late, we returned on board, leaving many bells and mirrors on shore, and other things in their sight. As soon as we were at some distance on the sea, they came down from the hill, and showed themselves to be much astonished at the things. On that day we were only able to obtain water.

Next morning we saw from the ship that the people on shore had made a great smoke; and, thinking it was the signal to us, we went on shore, where we found that many people had come, but they still kept at a distance from us. They made signs to us that we should come inland with them. Two of our Christians were, therefore, sent to ask their captain for leave to go with them a short distance inland, to see what kind of people they were, and if they had any riches, spices, or drugs. The captain was contented, so they got together many things for barter, and parted from us, with instructions that they should not be more than five days absent as we would wait that time for them. So they set out on their road inland, and we returned to the ships to wait for them. Nearly every day people came to the beach, but they would not speak with us. On the seventh day we went on shore, and found that they had arranged with their women; for, as we jumped on shore, the men of the land sent many of their women to speak with us. Seeing that they were not reassured, we arranged to send to them one of our people, who was a very agile and valiant youth. To give them more confidence, the rest of us went back into the boats. He went among the women, and they all began to touch and feel him, wondering at him exccedingly. Things being so, we saw a woman come from the hill, carrying a great stick in her hand. When she came to where our Christian stood, she raised it, and gave him such a blow that he was felled to the ground. The other women immediately took him by the feet, and dragged him towards the hill. The men rushed down to the beach, and shot at us with their bows and arrows. Our people, in great fear, hauled the boats towards their anchors, which were on shore; but, owing to the quantites of arrows that came into the boats, no one thought of taking up their arms. At last four rounds from the bombard were fired at them; and they no sooner heard the report than they all ran away towards the hill, where the women were still tearing the Christian to pieces. At a great fire they had made they roasted him before our eyes, showing us many pieces, and then eating them. The men made signs how they had killed the other two Christians and eaten them. What shocked us much was seeing with our eyes the cruelty with which they treated the dead, which was an intolerable insult to all of us.

Having arranged that more than forty of us should land and avenge such cruel murder and so bestial and inhuman an act, the principal captain would not give his consent. We departed from them unwillingly, and with much shame caused by the decision of our captain.

We left this place, and commenced our navigation by shaping a course between east and south. Thus we sailed along the land, making many landings, seeing natives, but having no intercourse with them. We sailed on until we found that the coast made a turn to the west

when we had doubled a cape, to which we gave the name of the *Cape of St. Augustine*. We then began to shape a course to the south-west. The cape is distant from the place where the Christians were murdered 150 leagues towards the east, and this cape is 8° from the equinoctial line to the south. In navigating, we saw one day a great multitude of people on the beach, gazing at the wonderful sight of our ships. As we sailed, we turned the ship towards them, anchored in a good place, and went on shore with the boats. We found the people to be better conditioned than those we had met with before; and, responding to our overtures, they soon made friends, and treated with us. We were five days in this place, and found *canna fistola* very thick and green, and dry on the tops of the trees. We determined to take a pair of men from this place, that they might teach us their language, and three of them came voluntarily to go to Portugal.

Lest your Magnificence should be tired of so much writing, you must know that, on leaving this port, we sailed along on a westerly course, always in sight of land, continually making many landings, and speaking with an infinite number of people. We were so far south that we were outside the Tropic of Capricorn, where the South Pole rises above the horizon 32°. We had lost sight altogether of *Ursa Minor* and *Ursa Major*, which were far below and scarcely seen on the horizon. We guided ourselves by the stars of the South Pole, which are numerous and much larger and brighter than those of our Pole. I traced the figure of the greater part of those of the first magnitude, with a declaration of their orbits round the South Pole, and of their diameters and semi-diameters, as may be seen in my FOUR VOYAGES. We sailed along that coast for 750 leagues, 150 from the cape called *St. Augustine* to the west, and 600 to the south.

Desiring to recount the things I saw on that coast, and what happened to us, as many more leaves would not suffice me. On the coast we saw an infinite number of trees, brazil wood and *cassia*, and those trees which yield myrrh, as well as other marvels of nature which I am unable to recount. Having now been ten months on the voyage, and having seen that there was no mining wealth whatever in that land, we decided upon taking leave of it, and upon sailing across the sea for some other part. Having held a consultation, it was decided that the course should be taken which seemed good to me; and the command of the fleet was intrusted to me. I gave orders that the fleet should be supplied with wood and water for six months, such being the decision of the officers of the ships. Having made our departure from this land, we began our navigation with a southerly course on the 15th of February, when already the sun moved towards the equinoctial, and turned towards our Hemisphere of the North. We sailed so far on this course that we found ourselves where the South Pole had a height above our horizon of 52°, and we could no longer see the stars of *Ursa Minor* or of *Ursa Major*. We were then 500 leagues to the south of the port whence we had departed, and this was on the 3rd of April. On this day such a tempest arose on the sea that all our sails were blown away, and we ran under bare poles, with a heavy southerly gale and a tremendous sea, the air being very tempestuous. The gale was such that all the people in the fleet were much alarmed. The nights were very long, for the night we had on the 7th of April lasted fifteen hours, the sun being at the end of Aries, and in that region it was winter, as your Magnificence will be well aware. Sailing in this storm, on the 7th of April we came in sight of new land, along which we ran for nearly 20 leagues, and found it all a rocky coast, without any port or inhabitants. I believe this was because the cold was so great that no one in the fleet could endure it. Finding ourselves in such peril, and in such a storm that we could scarcely see one ship from another, owing to the greatness of the waves and the blinding mist, it was agreed with the principal captain that a signal should be made to the ships that they should make for land, and then shape a course for Portugal. This was very good counsel, for it is certain that, if we had delayed another night, all would have been lost; for, as we wore round on the next day, we were met by such a storm that we expected to be swamped. We had to undertake pilgrim-

ages and perform other ceremonies, as is the custom of sailors at such times. We ran for five days, always coming towards the equinoctial line, where the air and sea became more temperate. It pleased God to deliver us from such peril. Our course was now between the north and north-east, for our intention was to reach the coast of Ethiopia, our distance from it being 300 leagues, in the Gulf of the Atlantic Sea. By the grace of God, on the 10th day of May, we came in sight of land, where we were able to refresh ourselves, the land being called *La Serra Liona*. We were there fifteen days, and thence shaped a course to the islands of the *Azores*, which are distant nearly 750 leagues from that *Serra*. We reached the islands in the end of July, where we remained fifteen days, taking some recreation. Thence we departed for Lisbon, distant 300 leagues to the west, and arrived at that port of Lisbon on the 7th of September, 1502, may God be thanked for our salvation, with only two ships. We burnt the other at *Serra Liona*, because she was no longer seaworthy. We were employed on this voyage nearly fifteen months; and for eleven days we navigated without seeing the North Star, nor the Great or Little Bears, which they call *el corno*, and we were guided by the stars of the other Pole. This is what I saw on this voyage.

2.

March (or April), 1503.

Alberico Vesputio to Lorenzo Pietro de' Medici, salutation. In past days I wrote very fully to you of my return from the new countries, which have been found and explored with the ships, at the cost, and by the command, of this Most Serene King of Portugal; and it is lawful to call it a new world, because none of these countries were known to our ancestors, and to all who hear about them they will be entirely new. For the opinion of the ancients was that the greater part of the world beyond the equinoctial line to the south was not land, but only sea, which they have called the Atlantic; and, if they have affirmed that any continent is there, they have given many reasons for denying that it is inhabited. But this their opinion is false, and entirely opposed to the truth. My last voyage has proved it, for I have found a continent in that southern part, more populous and more full of animals than our Europe or Asia or Africa, and even more temperate and pleasant than any other region known to us, as will be explained further on. I shall write succinctly of the principal things only, and the things most worthy of notice and of being remembered, which I either saw or heard of in this new world, as presently will become manifest.

We set out, on a prosperous voyage, on the 14th of May, 1501, sailing from Lisbon, by order of the aforesaid King, with three ships, to discover new countries towards the west; and we sailed towards the south continuously for twenty months. Of this navigation the order is as follows: Our course was for the Fortunate Islands, so called formerly, but now we called them the Grand Canary Islands, which are in the third climate, and on the confines of the inhabited west. Thence we sailed rapidly over the ocean along the coast of Africa and part of Ethiopia to the Ethiopic Promontory, so called by Ptolemy, which is now called Cape Verde, and by the Ethiopians *Biseghier*, and that country *Mandraga*, 13° within the Torrid Zone, on the north side of the equinoctial line. The country is inhabited by a black race. Having taken on board what we required, we weighed our anchors and made sail, taking our way across the vast ocean towards the Antarctic Pole, with some westing. From the day when we left the before-mentioned promontory, we sailed for the space of two months and three days. Hitherto no land had appeared to us in that vast sea. In truth, how much we had suffered, what dangers of shipwreck, I leave to the judgment of those to whom the experience of such things is very well known. What a thing it is to seek unknown lands, and how difficult, being ignorant, to narrate briefly what happened! It should be known that, of the sixty-seven days of our voyage, we were navigating continuously forty-four. We had copious thunderstorms and perturbations, and it was so dark that we never could see either the sun in the day or the moon at night. This caused us great fear, so that we lost all hope of life. In these most terrible dangers of the sea it pleased the Most High to show us the continent

and the new countries, being another unknown world. These things being in sight, we were as much rejoiced as any one may imagine who, after calamity and ill-fortune, has obtained safety.

It was on the 7th of August, 1501, that we reached those countries, thanking our Lord God with solemn prayers, and celebrating a choral Mass. We knew that land to be a continent, and not an island, from its long beaches extending without trending round, the infinite number of inhabitants, the numerous tribes and peoples, the numerous kinds of wild animals unknown in our country, and many others never seen before by us, touching which it would take long to make reference. The clemency of God was shown forth to us by being brought to these regions; for the ships were in a leaking state, and in a few days our lives might have been lost in the sea. To Him be the honor and glory, and the grace of the action.

We took counsel, and resolved to navigate along the coast of this continent towards the east, and never to lose sight of the land. We sailed along until we came to a point where the coast turned to the south. The distance from the landfall to this point was nearly 300 leagues. In this stretch of coast we often landed, and had friendly relations with the natives, as I shall presently relate. I had forgotten to tell you that from Cape Verde to the first land of this continent the distance is nearly 700 leagues; although I estimate that we went over more than 1,800, partly owing to ignorance of the route, and partly owing to the tempests and foul winds which drove us off our course, and sent us in various directions. If my companions had not trusted in me, to whom cosmography was known, no one, not the leader of our navigation, would have known where we were after running 500 leagues. We were wandering and full of errors, and only the instruments for taking the altitudes of heavenly bodies showed us our position. These were the quadrant and astrolabe, as known to all. These have been much used by me with much honor; for I showed them that a knowledge of the marine chart, and the rules taught by it, are more worth than all the pilots in the world. For these pilots have no knowledge beyond those places to which they have often sailed. Where the said point of land showed us the trend of the coast to the south, we agreed to continue our voyage, and to ascertain what there might be in those regions. We sailed along the coast for nearly 500 leagues, often going on shore and having intercourse with the natives, who received us in a brotherly manner. We sometimes stayed with them for fifteen or twenty days continuously, as friends and guests, as I shall relate presently. Part of this continent is in the Torrid Zone, beyond the equinoctial line towards the South Pole. But it begins at 8° beyond the equinoctial. We sailed along the coast so far that we crossed the Tropic of Capricorn, and found ourselves where the Antarctic Pole was 50° above our horizon. We went towards the Antarctic Circle until we were 17° 30′ from it, all of which I have seen, and I have known the nature of those people, their customs, the resources and fertility of the land, the salubrity of the air, the positions of the celestial bodies in the heavens, and, above all, the fixed stars, over an eighth of the sphere, never seen by our ancestors, as I shall explain below.

As regards the people: we have found such a multitude in those countries that no one could enumerate them, as we read in the Apocalypse. They are people gentle and tractable, and all of both sexes go naked, not covering any part of their bodies, . . . and so they go until their deaths. They have large, square-built bodies, and well proportioned. Their color reddish, which, I think, is caused by their going naked and exposed to the sun. Their hair is plentiful and black. They are agile in walking, and of quick sight. They are of a free and good-looking expression of countenance, which they themselves destroy by boring the nostrils and lips, the nose and ears; nor must you believe that the borings are small, nor that they only have one, for I have seen those who had no less than seven borings in the face, each one the size of a plum. They stop up these perforations with blue stones, bits of marble, of crystal, or very fine alabaster, also with very white bones and other things artificially prepared according to their customs, which, if you could see, it would appear a strange and monstrous thing. One had in the nostrils

and lips alone seven stones, of which some were half a palm in length. It will astonish you to hear that I considered that the weight of seven such stones was as much as sixteen ounces. In each ear they had three perforations bored, whence they had other stones and rings suspended. This custom is only for the men, as the women do not perforate their faces, but only their ears. . . .

They have no cloth, either of wool, flax, or cotton, because they have no need of it; nor have they any private property, everything being in common. They live amongst themselves without a king or ruler, each man being his own master, and having as many wives as they please. . . . They have no temples and no laws, nor are they idolaters. What more can I say? They live according to nature, and are more inclined to be Epicurean than Stoic. They have no commerce among each other, and they wage war without art or order. The old men make the youths do what they please, and incite them to fights, in which they mutually kill with great cruelty. They slaughter those who are captured, and the victors eat the vanquished; for human flesh is an ordinary article of food among them. You may be the more certain of this, because I have seen a man eat his children and wife; and I knew a man who was popularly credited to have eaten 300 human bodies. I was once in a certain city for twenty-seven days, where human flesh was hung up near the houses, in the same way as we expose butcher's meat. I say further that they were surprised that we did not eat our enemies, and use their flesh as food; for they say it is excellent. Their arms are bows and arrows; and, when they go to war, they cover no part of their bodies, being in this like beasts. We did all we could to persuade them to desist from their evil habits, and they promised us to leave off. . . .

They live for 150 years, and are rarely sick. If they are attacked by a disease, they cure themselves with the roots of some herbs. These are the most noteworthy things I know about them.

The air in this country is temperate and good, as we were able to learn from their accounts that there are never any pestilences or epidemics caused by bad air. Unless they meet with violent deaths, their lives are long. I believe this is because a southerly wind is always blowing, a south wind to them being what a north wind is to us. They are expert fishermen, and the sea is full of all kinds of fish. They are not hunters. I think because here there are many kinds of wild animals, principally lions and bears, innumerable serpents, and other horrible creatures and deformed beasts, also because there are vast forests and trees of immense size. They have not the courage to face such dangers naked and without any defence.

The land is very fertile, abounding in many hills and valleys and in large rivers, and is irrigated by very refreshing springs. It is covered with extensive and dense forests, which are almost impenetrable, and full of every kind of wild beast. Great trees grow without cultivation, of which many yield fruits pleasant to the taste and nourishing to the human body; and a great many have an opposite effect. The fruits are unlike those in our country; and there are innumerable different kinds of fruits and herbs, of which they make bread and excellent food. They also have many seeds unlike ours. No kind of metal has been found except gold, in which the country abounds, though we have brought none back in this our first navigation. The natives, however, assured us that there was an immense quantity of gold underground, and nothing was to be had from them for a price. Pearls abound, as I wrote to you.

If I was to attempt to write of all the species of animals, it would be a long and tedious task. I believe certainly that our Pliny did not touch upon a thousandth part of the animals and birds that exist in this region; nor could an artist such as Policletus succeed in painting them. All the trees are odoriferous, and some of them emit gums, oils, or other liquors. If they were our property, I do not doubt but that they would be useful to man. If the terrestrial paradise is in some part of this land, it cannot be very far from the coast we visited. It is, as I have told you, in a climate where the air is temperate at noon, being neither cold in winter nor hot in summer.

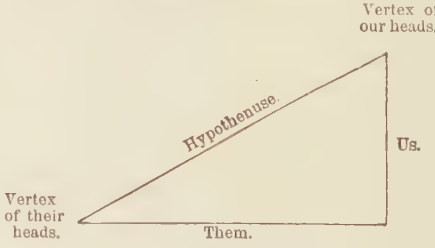
The sky and air are serene during a great part of the year. Thick vapors,

with fine rain falling, last for three or four hours, and then disappear like smoke. The sky is adorned with most beautiful signs and figures, in which I have noted as many as twenty stars as bright as we sometimes see Venus and Jupiter. I have considered the orbits and motions of these stars; and I have measured the circumference and diameters of the stars by a geometrical method, ascertaining which were the largest. I saw in the heaven three *Canopi*, two certainly bright and the other obscure. The Antarctic Pole is not figured with a Great Bear and a Little Bear, like our Arctic Pole, nor is any bright star seen near it, and of those which go round in the shortest circuit there are three which have the figure of the orthogonous triangle, of which the smallest has a diameter of 9 half-degrees. To the east of these is seen a *Canopus* of great size, and white, which, when in mid-heaven, has this figure:—

After these come two others, of which the half-circumference, the diameter, has 12 half-degrees; and with them is seen another Canopus. To these succeed six other most beautiful and very bright stars, beyond all the others of the eighth sphere, which, in the superficies of the heaven, have half the circumference, the diameter 32°, and with them is one black Canopus of immense size, seen in the Milky Way, and they have this shape when they are on the meridian:—

I have known many other very beautiful stars, which I have diligently noted down, and have described very well in a certain little book describing this my navigation, which at present is in the possession of that Most Serene King; and I hope he will restore it to me. In that hemisphere I have seen things not compatible with the opinions of philosophers. Twice I have seen a white rainbow towards the middle of the night, which was not only observed by me, but also by all the sailors. Likewise we often saw the new moon on the day on which it is in conjunction with the sun. Every night, in that part of the heavens of which we speak, there were innumerable vapors and burning meteors. I have told you, a little way back, that, in the hemisphere of which we are speaking, it is not a complete hemisphere in respect to ours, because it does not take that form so that it may be properly called so.

Therefore, as I have said, from Lisbon, whence we started, the distance from the equinoctial line is 39°; and we navigated beyond the equinoctial line to 50°, which together make 90°, which is one quarter of a great circle, according to the true measurement handed down to us by the ancients, so that it is manifest that we must have navigated over a fourth part of the earth. By this reasoning, we who inhabit Lisbon, at a distance of 39° from the equinoctial line in north latitude, are to those who live under 50° beyond the same line, in meridional length, angularly 5° on a transverse line. I will explain this more clearly: a perpendicular line, while we stand upright, if suspended from a point of the heavens exactly vertical, hangs over our heads; but it hangs over them sideways. Thus, while we are on a right line, they are on a transverse line. An orthogonal triangle is thus formed, of which we have the right line; but the base and hypothenuse to them seems the vertical line, as in this figure it will appear. This will suffice as regards cosmography.



These are the most notable things that I have seen in this my last navigation, or,

as I call it, the third voyage. For the other two voyages were made by order of the Most Serene King of Spain to the west, in which I noted many wonderful works of God, our Creator; and, if I should have time, I intend to collect all these singular and wonderful things into a geographical or cosmographical book, that my record may live with future generations; and the immense work of the omnipotent God will be known, in parts still unknown, but known to us. I also pray that the most merciful God will prolong my life that, with His good grace, I may be able to make the best disposition of this my wish. I keep the other two journeys in my sanctuary; and, the Most Serene King restoring to me the third journey, I intend to return to peace and my country. There, in consultation with learned persons, and comforted and aided by friends, I shall be able to complete my work.

I ask your pardon for not having sooner been able to send you this my last navigation, as I had promised in my former letters. I believe that you will understand the cause, which was that I could not get the books from this Most Serene King. I think of undertaking a fourth voyage in the same direction, and promise is already made of two ships with their armaments, in which I may seek new regions of the East on a coast called Africus. In which journey I hope much to do God honor, to be of service to this kingdom, to secure repute for my old age; and I expect no other result with the permission of this Most Serene King. May God permit what is for the best, and you shall be informed of what happens.

This letter was translated from the Italian into the Latin language by Jocundus, interpreter, as every one understands Latin who desires to learn about these voyages, and to search into the things of heaven, and to know all that is proper to be known; for, from the time the world began, so much has not been discovered touching the greatness of the earth and what is contained in it.

Ames, ADELBERT, military officer; born in Rockland, Me., Oct. 31, 1835; was graduated at West Point in 1861; and for his gallant conduct in the Battle of Bull Run (1861) was brevetted major. He served in the campaigns on the Peninsula in 1862. At Chancellorsville he led a brigade, also at Gettysburg, in 1863, and before Petersburg, in 1864, he commanded a division. In the expedition against Fort Fisher, near the close of that year, he commanded a division of colored troops, and afterwards led the same in North Carolina. In the spring of 1865 he was brevetted major-general of volunteers and brigadier-general, U. S. A. In 1871 he was a representative of Mississippi in the United States Senate; was governor in 1874; and was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers June 20, 1898, serving through the war with Spain.

Ames, FISHER, orator and statesman; born in Dedham, Mass., April 9, 1758; was graduated at Harvard College in 1774; taught school until 1781; then began the practice of law; and soon displayed rare oratorical powers. He wrote political essays for Boston newspapers, over the signatures of "Brutus" and "Camillus." In Congress from 1789 until 1797 he was always distinguished for his great business talent, exalted patriotism, and brilliant oratory. Ardently devoted to Washington, personally and politically, he was chosen by his colleagues to write the address to the first President on his retiring

FISHER AMES.

from office in 1797. After leaving Congress he devoted himself to the practice of his profession; but finally, on account of declining health, gave it up to engage exclusively in agricultural pursuits. In 1804 he was chosen president of Harvard Col-

lege, but declined the honor. He received the degree of LL.D. from that institution. His orations, essays, and letters were collected and published in 1 volume, with a biographical sketch by Rev. Dr. Kirkland, in 1809. So powerful was his great speech in Congress in favor of Jay's Treaty, on April 28, 1795, that an opposition member moved to postpone the decision of the question that they might not "vote under the influence of a sensibility which their calm judgment might condemn." He died in Dedham, July 4, 1808.

Speech on Jay's Treaty.—The following are extracts from his speech made on April 28, 1796:

The treaty is bad, fatally bad, is the cry. It sacrifices the interest, the honor, the independence of the United States, and the faith of our engagements to France. If we listen to the clamor of party intemperance, the evils are of a number not to be counted, and of a nature not to be borne, even in idea. The language of passion and exaggeration may silence that of sober reason in other places; it has not done it here. The question here is whether the treaty be really so very fatal as to oblige the nation to break its faith. I admit that such a treaty ought not to be executed. I admit that self-preservation is the first law of society, as well as of individuals. It would, perhaps, be deemed an abuse of terms to call that a treaty which violates such a principle. I waive, also, for the present, any inquiry, what departments shall represent the nation, and annul the stipulations of a treaty. I content myself with pursuing the inquiry, whether the nature of this compact be such as to justify our refusal to carry it into effect. A treaty is the promise of a nation. Now, promises do not always bind him that makes them. But I lay down two rules, which ought to guide us in this case. The treaty must appear to be bad, not merely in the petty details, but in its character, principle, and mass. And in the next place, this ought to be ascertained by the decided and general concurrence of the enlightened public.

I confess there seems to be something very like ridicule thrown over the debate by the discussion of the articles in detail. The undecided point is, shall we break our faith? And while our country and enlightened Europe await the issue with more than curiosity, we are employed to gather piecemeal, and article by article, from the instrument a justification for the deed by trivial calculations of commercial profit and loss. This is little worthy of the subject, of this body, or of the nation. If the treaty is bad, it will appear to be so in its mass. Evil, to a fatal extreme, if that be its tendency, requires no proof; it brings it. Extremes speak for themselves and make their own law. What if the direct voyage of American ships to Jamaica, with horses or lumber, might net 1 or 2 *per centum* more than the present trade to Surinam—would the proof of the fact avail anything in so grave a question as the violation of the public engagements? . . .

Why do they complain that the West Indies are not laid open? Why do they lament that any restriction is stipulated on the commerce of the East Indies? Why do they pretend that, if they reject this and insist upon more, more will be accomplished? Let us be explicit—more would not satisfy. If all was granted, would not a treaty of amity with Great Britain still be obnoxious? Have we not this instant heard it urged against our envoy that he was not ardent enough in his hatred of Great Britain? A treaty of amity is condemned because it was not made by a foe and in the spirit of one. The same gentleman, at the same instant, repeats a very prevailing objection, that no treaty should be made with the enemy of France. No treaty, exclaim others, should be made with a monarch or a despot; there will be no naval security while those sea-robbers domineer on the ocean; their den must be destroyed; that nation must be extirpated.

I like this, sir, because it is sincerity. With feelings such as these we do not pant for treaties. Such passions seek nothing, and will be content with nothing, but the destruction of their object. If a treaty left King George his island, it would not answer; not if he stipulated to pay rent for it. It has been said the world ought to rejoice if Britain was sunk in the sea; if where there are now men and wealth and laws and liberty, there was no

more than a sand-bank for sea monsters to fatten on, a space for the storms of the ocean to mingle in conflict. . . .

What is patriotism? Is it a narrow affection for the spot where a man was born? Are the very clods where we tread entitled to this ardent preference because they are greener? No, sir, this is not the character of the virtue, and it soars higher for its object. It is an extended self-love, mingled with all the enjoyments of life, and twisting itself with the minutest filaments of the heart. It is thus we obey the laws of society, because they are the laws of virtue. In their authority we see not the array of force and terror, but the venerable image of our country's honor. Every good citizen makes that honor his own, and cherishes it not only as precious, but as sacred. He is willing to risk his life in its defence, and is conscious that he gains protection while he gives it. For, what rights of a citizen will be deemed inviolable when a state renounces the principles that constitute their security? Or if his life should not be invaded, what would its enjoyments be in a country odious in the eyes of strangers and dishonored in his own? Could he look with affection and veneration to such a country as his parent? The sense of having one would die within him; he would blush for his patriotism, if he retained any, and justly, for it would be a vice. He would be a banished man in his native land. I see no exception to the respect that is paid among nations to the laws of good faith. If there are cases in this enlightened period when it is violated, there are none when it is decried. It is the philosophy of politics, the religion of governments. It is observed by barbarians—a whiff of tobacco smoke or a string of beads gives not merely a binding force but sanctity to treaties. Even in Algiers a truce may be bought for money, but, when ratified, even Algiers is too wise or too just to disown and annul its obligation. Thus we see neither the ignorance of savages nor the principles of an association for piracy and rapine permit a nation to despise its engagements. If, sir, there could be a resurrection from the foot of the gallows, if the victims of justice could live again, collect together and form a society, they would, however loath, soon find themselves obliged to make justice, that justice under which they fell, the fundamental law of their state. They would perceive it was their interest to make others respect—and they would, therefore, soon pay some respect themselves to—the obligations of good faith.

It is painful—I hope it is superfluous—to make even the supposition that America should furnish the occasion of this opprobrium. No, let me not even imagine that a republican government, sprung, as our own is, from a people enlightened and uncorrupted, a government whose origin is right, and whose daily discipline is duty, can, upon solemn debate, make its option to be faithless—can dare to act what despots dare not avow, what our own example evinces, the states of Barbary are unsuspected of. No, let me rather make the supposition that Great Britain refuses to execute the treaty after we have done everything to carry it into effect. Is there any language of reproach pungent enough to express your commentary on the fact? What would you say, or, rather, what would you not say? Would you not tell them, wherever an Englishman might travel, shame would stick to him—he would disown his country? You would exclaim: "England, proud of your wealth and arrogant in the possession of power, blush for these distinctions, which become the vehicles of your dishonor." Such a nation might truly say to corruption, "Thou art my father"; and to the worm, "Thou art my mother and my sister." We should say of such a race of men, their name is a heavier burden than their debt. . . .

Ames, Herman Vandenburg, historian; born in Lancaster, Mass., Aug. 7, 1865; was graduated at Amherst College in 1888 and later studied in Germany. In 1891–94 he was an instructor in History at the University of Michigan; in 1896–97 occupied a similar post in Ohio State University; and in the latter year accepted the chair of American Constitutional History in the University of Pennsylvania. He is author of *The Proposed Amendments to the Constitution of the United States,* for which he was awarded the prize of the American Historical Association in 1897.

Ames, OAKES, manufacturer; born in Easton, Mass., Jan. 10, 1804; received a public school education; became thoroughly familiar with the manufacture of shovels, etc. Subsequently he became a member of the firm of Oliver Ames & Sons. When the Union Pacific Railroad was being built the firm held large contracts which afterwards were transferred to a corporation known as the Crédit Mobilier of America, of which Oakes Ames became one of the largest stockholders. In 1862–73 he was a member of Congress from Massachusetts. His connection with the Crédit Mobilier, including an allegation of having improperly given stock to several members of Congress, was investigated by a committee of the House of Representatives and he was censured by that body. He died in North Easton, Mass., May 8, 1873. See CRÉDIT MOBILIER.

Ames, OLIVER, statesman; born in Easton, Mass., Feb. 4, 1831; educated at Brown University; member of the State Senate, 1880–81; lieutenant-governor, 1882–84. He died in North Easton, Mass., Oct. 22, 1895.

Amherst, SIR JEFFREY, military officer; born in Kent, England, Jan. 29, 1717; became an ensign in the army in 1731, and was aide to Lord Ligonier and the Duke of Cumberland. In 1756 he was promoted to major-general and given the command of the expedition against Louisburg in 1758, which resulted in its capture, with other French strongholds in that vicinity. In September, that year, he was appointed commander-in-chief in America, and led the troops in person, in 1759, that drove the French from Lake Champlain. The next year he captured Montreal and completed the conquest of Canada. For these acts he was rewarded with the thanks of Parliament and the Order of the Bath. In 1763 he was appointed governor of Virginia. The atrocities of the Indians in May and June of that year aroused the anger and the energies of Sir Jeffrey, and he contemplated hurling swift destruction upon the barbarians. He denounced Pontiac as the "chief ringleader of mischief"; and, in a proclamation, said, "Whoever kills Pontiac shall receive from me a reward of £100" ($500). He bade the commander at Detroit to make public proclamation for an assassin to pursue him. He regarded the Indians as "the vilest race of creatures on the face of the earth; and whose riddance from it must be esteemed a meritorious act, for the good of mankind." He instructed his officers engaged in war against them to "take no prisoners, but to put to death all that should fall into their hands." Sir Jeffrey was made governor of the island of Guernsey in 1771; created a baron in 1776; was commander-in-chief of the forces from 1778 to 1795; and became field-marshal in July, 1796. He died Aug. 3, 1797.

SIR JEFFREY AMHERST.

Amherst College, an educational institution in Amherst, Mass., founded in 1821; incorporated in 1825. The funds for the construction of its buildings and for its endowments have been furnished by gifts of individuals, with the exception of $50,000 given by the State. The Christian men and women of Massachusetts have built it up and chiefly sustain it. The declared object of its founders was "the education of young men for ministerial and missionary labor." In 1899 it had thirty-six professors and instructors, 380 students, buildings that cost over $400,000, and valuable art and scientific collections. The Rev. George Harris D.D., was elected its president in that year.

AMIDAS, PHILIP

Amidas, PHILIP, navigator; was of a Breton family in France, but was born in Hull, England, in 1550. When Raleigh sent two ships to America in 1584, the chief command was given to Arthur Barlow, who commanded one of the vessels,

and Philip Amidas the other. They were directed to explore the coasts within the parallels of lat. 32° and 38° N. They touched at the Canary Islands, the West Indies, and Florida, and made their way northward along the coast. On July 13, 1584, they entered Ocrakoke Inlet, and landed on Wocoken Island. There Barlow set up a small column with the British arms rudely carved upon it, and took formal possession of the whole region in the name of Queen Elĭzabeth, as he waved the English banner over it in the presence of the wondering natives. They spent several weeks in exploring Roanoke Island and Pamlico and Albemarle sounds. On Roanoke Island the Englishmen were entertained by the mother of King Wingini, who was absent, and were hospitably received everywhere. After getting what information they could about the neighboring main, and inspired by the beauties of nature around them, the navigators returned to England, attended by Manteo and Wanchese, two Indian chiefs. The former was afterwards created "Lord of Roanoke," and was the first and last American peer of England created. The glowing accounts given by Amidas and Barlow of the country they had discovered captivated the Queen, and she named the region, as some say, in allusion to her unmarried state, Virginia; others say it was in allusion to the virgin country. Amidas was in the maritime service of England long afterwards; and a few years after his voyage to Virginia he commanded an expedition to Newfoundland. He died in England in 1618.

First Voyage to Roanoke.—The following is the narrative of the first voyage to Roanoke by Amidas (or Amadas) and Barlow, written by the latter:

The 27 day of Aprill, in the yeere of our redemption, 1584. we departed the West of England, with two barkes well furnished with men and victuals, having received our last and perfect directions by your letters, confirming the former instructions, and commandments delivered by your selfe at our leaving the river of Thames. And I think it is a matter both unnecessary, for the manifest discoverie of the Countrey, as also for tediousnesse sake, remember unto you the diurnall of our course, sayling thither and returning; onely I have presumed to present unto you this briefe discourse, by which you may judge how profitable this land is likely to succeede, as well to your selfe, by whose direction and charge, and by whose servantes this our discoverie hath beene performed, as also to her Highnesse, and the Commonwealth, in which we hope your wisdome wilbe satisfied, considering that as much by us hath bene brought to light, as by those smal meanes, and number of men we had, could any way have bene expected, or hoped for.

The tenth of May we arrived at the Canaries, and the tenth of June in this present yeere, we were fallen with the Islands of the West Indies, keeping a more Southeasterly course then was needefull, because wee doubted that the current of the Bay of Mexico, disbogging betweene the Cape of Florida and Havana, had bene of greater force than afterwards we found it to bee. At which Islands we found the ayre very unwholesome, and our men grew for the most part ill disposed: so that having refreshed our selves with sweet water, & fresh victuall, we departed the twelfth day of our arrivall there. These islands, with the rest adjoining, are so well knowen to your selfe, and to many others, as I will not trouble you with the rememberance of them.

The second of July we found shole water, wher we smelt so sweet, and so strong a smel, as if we had bene in the midst of some delicate garden abounding with all kinde of odoriferous flowers, by which we were assured, that the land could not be farre distant: and keeping good watch, and bearing but slacke saile, the fourth of the same moneth we arrived upon the coast, which we supposed to be a continent and firme lande, and we sayled along the same a hundred and twentie English miles before we could finde any entrance, or river issuing into the Sea. The first that appeared unto us, we entred, though not without some difficultie, & cast anker about three harquebuz-shot within the havens mouth on the left hand of the same; and after thanks given to God for our safe arrivall thither, we manned our boats, and went to view the land next adjoyning, and to take possession of

the same, in the right of the Queenes most excellent Majestie, and rightfull Queene, and Princess of the same, and after delivered the same over to your use, according to her Majesties grant, and letters patents, under her Highnesse great seale. Which being performed, according to the ceremonies used in such enterprises, we viewed the land about us, being, whereas we first landed, very sandie and low towards the waters side, but so full of grapes, as the very beating and surge of the Sea overflowed them, of which we found such plentie, as well there as in all places else, both on the sand and on the greene soile on the hils, as in the plaines, as well on every little shrubbe, as also climing towardes the tope of high Cedars, that I thinke in all the world the like abundance is not to be found; and my selfe having seene those parts of Europe that most abound, find such difference as were incredible to be written.

We passed from the Sea side towardes the toppes of those hilles next adjoyning, being but of meane higth, and from thence wee behelde the Sea on both sides to the North, and to the South, finding no ende any of both wayes. This lande laye stretching it selfe to the West, which after wee found to bee but an Island of twentie miles long, and not above sixe miles broade. Under the banke or hill whereon we stoode, we behelde the valleys replenished with goodly Cedar trees, and having discharged our harquebuz-shot, such a flocke of Cranes (the most part white), arose under us, with such a cry redoubled by many ecchoes, as if an armie of men had showted all together.

This Island had many goodly woodes full of Deere, Conies, Hares, and Fowle, even in the middest of Summer in incredible abundance. The woodes are not such as you finde in Bohemia, Moscouia, or Hercynia, barren and fruitless, but the highest and reddest Cedars of the world, farre bettering the Cedars of the Açores, of the Indies, or Lybanus, Pynes, Cypres, Sassaphras, the Lentisk, or the tree that beareth the Masticke, the tree that beareth the rine of blacke Sinamon, of which Master Winter brought from the streights of Magellan, and many other of excellent smell and qualitie. We remained by the side of this Island two whole dayes before we saw any people of the Countrey: the third day we espied one small boate rowing towardes us having in it three persons: this boat came to the Island side, foure harquebuz-shot from our shippes, and there two of the people remaining, the third came along the shoreside towards us, and wee being then all within boord, he walked up and downe upon the point of the land next unto us: then the Master and the Pilot of the Admirall, Simon Ferdinando, and the Captaine Philip Amadas, my selfe, and others rowed to the land, whose comming this fellow attended, never making any shewe of fear or doubt. And after he had spoken of many things not understood by us, we brought him with his owne good liking, aboord the ships, and gave him a shirt, a hat & some other things, and made him taste of our wine, and our meat, which he liked very wel: and after having viewed both barks, he departed, and went to his owne boat againe, which hee had left in a little Cove or Creeke adjoyning: assoone as hee was two bow shoot into the water, hee fell to fishing, and in lesse than halfe an houre, he had laden his boate as deepe as it could swimme, with which hee came againe to the point of the lande, and there he divided his fish into two parts, pointing one part to the ship, and the other to the pinnesse: which, after he had, as much as he might, requited the former benefites received, departed out of our sight.

The next day there came unto us divers boates, and in one of them the Kings brother, accompanied with fortie or fiftie men, very handsome and goodly people, and in their behaviour as mannerly and civill as any of Europe. His name was Granganimeo, and the king is called Wingina, the countrey Wingandacoa, and now by her Majestie Virginia. The manner of his comming was in this sort: hee left his boates altogether as the first man did a little from the shippes by the shore, and came along to the place over against the shipes, followed with fortie men. When he came to the place, his servants spread a long matte upon the ground, on which he sate downe, and at the other ende of the matte foure others of his companie did the like, the rest of his men stood round about him, somewhat a farre off: when we

came to the shore to him with our weapons, hee never mooved from his place, nor any of the other foure, nor never mistrusted any harme to be offered from us, but sitting still he beckoned us to come and sit by him, which we performed: and being set hee made all signes of joy and welcome, striking on his head and his breast and afterwardes on ours to shew wee were all one, smiling and making shewe the best he could of al love, and familiaritie. After hee had made a long speech unto us, wee presented him with divers things, which hee received very joyfully, and thankefully. None of the company, durst speake one worde all the time: only the foure which were at the other ende, spake one in the others eare very softly.

The King is greatly obeyed, and his brothers and children reverenced: the King himself in person was at our being there, sore wounded in a fight which hee had with the King of the next countrey, called Wingina, and was shot in two places through the body, and once cleane through the thigh, but yet he recovered: by reason whereof and for that hee lay at the chief towne of the countrey, being sixe dayes journey off, we saw him not at all.

After we had presented this his brother with such things as we thought he liked, wee likewise gave somewhat to the other that sat with him on the matte: but presently he arose and tooke all from them and put it into his owne basket, making signes and tokens, that all things ought to bee delivered unto him, and the rest were but his servants, and followers. A day or two after this, we fell to trading with them, exchanging some things that we had, for Chamoys, Buffe, and Deere skinnes: when we shewed him all our packet of merchandize, of all things that he sawe, a bright tinne dish most pleased him, which hee presently tooke up and clapt it before his breast, and after made a hole in the brimme thereof and hung it about his necke, making signes that it would defende him against his enemies arrowes: for those people maintaine a deadly and terrible warre, with the people and King adjoyning. We exchanged our tinne dish for twentie skinnes, woorth twentie Crownes, or twentie Nobles: and a copper kettle for fiftie skins woorth fifty Crownes. They offered us good exchange for our hatchets, and axes, and for knives, and would have given any thing for swordes: but wee would not depart with any. After two or three dayes the Kings brother came aboord the shippes, and dranke wine, and eat of our meat and of our bread, and liked exceedingly thereof: and after a few days overpassed, he brought his wife with him to the ships, his daughter and two or three children: his wife was very well favoured, of meane stature, and very bashfull: shee had on her backe a long cloake of leather, with the furre side next to her body, and before her a piece of the same: about her forehead she had a bande of white Corall, and so had her husband many times: in her eares shee had bracelets of pearles hanging down to her middle, whereof wee delivered your worship a little bracelet, and those were of the bignes of good pease. The rest of her women of the better sort had pendants of copper hanging in either eare, and some of the children of the Kings brother and other noble men, have five or sixe in either eare: he himselfe had upon his head a broad plate of golde, or copper, for being unpolished we knew not what mettal it should be, neither would he by any means suffer us to take it off his head, but feeling it, it would bow very easily. His apparell was as his wives, onely the women weare their haire long on both sides, and the men but on one. They are of colour yellowish, and their haire black for the most part, and yet we saw children that had very fine auburne and chestnut coloured haire.

After that these women had bene there, there came downe from all parts great store of people, bringing with them leather, corall, divers kindes of dies, very excellent, and exchanged with us: but when Granganimeo the kings brother was present, none durst trade but himselfe: except such as weare red pieces of copper on their heads like himselfe: for that is the difference betweene the noble men, and the gouvernours of countreys, and the meaner sort. And we both noted there, and you have understood since by these men, which we brought home, that no people in the worlde cary more respect to their King, Nobilitie, and Governours,

than these do. The Kings brothers wife, when she came to us, as she did many times, was followed with forty or fifty women alwayes: and when she came into the shippe, she left them all on land, saving her two daughters, her nurse and one or two more. The kings brother alwayes kept this order, as many boates as he would come withall to the shippes, so many fires would he make on the shore a farre off, to the end we might understand with what strength and company he approached. Their boates are made of one tree, either of Pine or of Pitch trees: a wood not commonly knowen to our people, nor found growing in England. They have no edge-tooles to make them withall: if they have any they are very fewe, and those it seemes they had twentie yeres since, which, as those two men declared, was out of a wrake which happened upon their coast of some Christian ship, being beaten that way by some storme and outragious weather, whereof none of the people were saved, but only the ship, or some part of her being cast upon the sand, out of whose sides they drew the nayles and the spikes, and with those they made their best instruments. The manner of making their boates is thus: they burne down some great tree, or take such as are winde fallen, and putting gumme and rosen upon one side thereof, they set fire into it, and when it hath burnt it hollow, they cut out the coale with their shels, and ever where they would burne it deeper or wider they lay on gummes, which burne away the timber, and by this means they fashion very fine boates, and such as will transport twentie men. Their oares are like scoopes, and many times they set with long poles, as the depth serveth.

The Kings brother had great liking of our armour, a sword, and divers other things which we had: and offered to lay a great boxe of pearls in gage for them: but we refused it for this time, because we would not make them knowe, that we esteemed thereof, untill we had understoode in what places of the countrey the pearle grew: which now your Worshippe doeth very well understand.

He was very just of his promise: for many times we delivered him merchandize upon his worde, but ever he came within the day and performed his promise. He sent us every day a brase or two of fat Bucks, Conies, Hares, Fish and best of the world. He sent us divers kindes of fruites, Melons, Walnuts, Cucumbers, Gourdes, Pease, and divers rootes, and fruites very excellent good, and of their Countrey corne, which is very white, faire and well tasted, and groweth three times in five moneths: in May they sow, in July they reape; in June they sow, in August they reape; in July they sow, in September they reape: onely they caste the corne into the ground, breaking a little of the soft turfe with a wodden mattock, or pickaxe; our selves prooved the soile, and put some of our Pease in the ground, and in tenne dayes they were of fourteene ynches high: they have also Beanes very faire of divers colours and wonderfull plentie: some growing naturally, and some in their gardens, and so have they both wheat and oates.

The soile is the most plentifull, sweete, fruitfull and wholesome of all the worlde: there are above fourteene severall sweete smelling timber trees, and the most part of their underwoods are Bayes and such like: they have those Okes that we have, but farre greater and better. After they had bene divers times aboord our shippes, my selfe, and seven more went twentie mile into the River, that runneth towarde the Citie of Skicoak, which River they call Occam: and the evening following wee came to an Island which they call Roanoak, distant from the harbour by which we entred, seven leagues: and at the North end thereof was a village of nine houses, built of Cedar, and fortified round about with sharpe trees, to keepe out their enemies, and the entrance into it made like a turnepike very artificially; when wee came towardes it, standing neere unto the waters side, the wife of Granganimo the Kings brother came running out to meete us very cheerfully and friendly, her husband was not then in the village; some of her people shee commanded to drawe our boate on shore for the beating of the billoe: others she appointed to carry us on their backes to the dry ground, and others to bring our oares into the house for feare of stealing. When we were come into the utter roome, having five roomes in her house, she caused us to sit downe by a

great fire, and after tooke off our clothes and washed them, and dryed them againe: some of the women plucked off our stockings and washed them, some washed our feete in warme water, and she herselfe tooke great paines to see all things ordered in the best maner shee could, making great haste to dresse some meate for us to eate.

After we had thus dryed ourselves, she brought us into the inner roome, where shee set on the boord standing along the house, some wheate like furmentie, sodden Venison, and roasted, fish sodden, boyled and roasted, Melons rawe, and sodden, rootes of divers kindes and divers fruites: their drinke is commonly water, but while the grape lasteth, they drinke wine, and for want of caskes to keepe it, all the yere after they drink water, but it is sodden with Ginger in it and blacke Sinamon, and sometimes Sassaphras, and divers other wholesome, and medicinable hearbes and trees. We were entertained with all love and kindnesse, and with much bountie, after their maner, as they could possibly devise. We found the people most gentle, loving and faithfull, voide of all guile and treason, and such as live after the manner of the golden age. The people onely care howe to defend themselves from the cold in their short winter, and to feed themselves with such meat as the soile affoordeth: there meat is very well sodden and they make broth very sweet and savorie: their vessels are earthen pots, very large, white and sweete, their dishes are wooden platters of sweet timber: within the place where they feede was their lodging, and within that their Idoll, which they worship, of whome they speake incredible things. While we were at meate, there came in at the gates two or three men with their bowes and arrowes from hunting, whom when wee espied, we beganne to looke one towardes another, and offered to reach our weapons: but as soone as shee espied our mistrust, shee was very much mooved, and caused some of her men to runne out, and take away their bowes and arrowes and breake them, and withall beate the poore fellowes out of the gate againe. When we departed in the evening and would not tary all night she was very sorry, and gave us into our boate our supper halfe dressed, pottes and all, and brought us to our boate side, in which wee lay all night, remooving the same a prettie distance from the shoare: shee perceiving our jealousie, was much grieved, and sent divers men and thirtie women, to sit all night on the banke side by us, and sent us into our boates five mattes to cover us from the raine, using very many wordes, to entreate us to rest in their houses: but because wee were fewe men, and if wee had miscarried, the voyage had bene in very great danger, wee durst not adventure any thing, although there was no cause of doubt: for a more kinde and loving people there can not be found in the worlde, as farre as we have hitherto had triall.

Beyond this Island there is the maine lande, and over against this Island falleth into this spacious water the great river called Occam by the inhabitants, on which standeth a towne called Pomeiock, & sixe days journey from the same is situate their greatest citie, called Skicoak, which this people affirme to be very great: but the Savages were never at it, only they speake of it by the report of their fathers and other men, whom they have heard affirme it to bee above one houres journey about.

Into this river falleth another great river, called Cipo, in which there is found great store of Muskles in which there are pearles: likewise there descendeth into this Occam, another river, called Nomopana, on the one side whereof standeth a great towne called Chawanook, and the Lord of that towne and countrey is called Pooneno: this Pooneno is not subject to the King of Wingandacoa, but is a free Lord: beyond this country is there another king, whom they cal Menatonon, and these three kings are in league with each other. Towards the Southwest, foure dayes journey is situate a towne called Sequotan, which is the Southermost towne of Wingandacoa, neere unto which, sixe and twentie yeres past there was a ship cast away, whereof some of the people were saved, and those were white people whom the countrey people preserved.

And after ten days remaining in an out Island unhabited, called Wocokon, they with the help of some of the dwellers of Sequotan fastened two boates of the countrey together & made mastes unto

them and sailes of their shirtes, and having taken into them such victuals as the countrey yeelded, they departed after they had remained in this out Island 3 weekes: but shortly after it seemed they were cast away, for the boates were found upon the coast cast a land in another Island adjoyning: other than these, there was never any people apparelled, or white of colour, either seene or heard of amongst these people, and these aforesaid were seene onely of the inhabitantes of Secotan, which appeared to be very true, for they wondred marvelously when we were amongst them at the whitenes of our skins, ever coveting to touch our breasts, and to view the same. Besides they had our ships in marvelous admiration, & all things els were so strange unto them, as it appeared that none of them had ever seene the like. When we discharged any piece, were it but an hargubuz, they would tremble thereat for very feare and for the strangenesse of the same: for the weapons which themselves use are bowes and arrowes: the arrowes are but of small canes, headed with a sharpe shell or tooth of a fish sufficient ynough to kill a naked man. Their swordes be of wood hardened: likewise they use wooden breastplates for their defence. They have beside a kinde of club, in the end whereof they fasten the sharpe horns of a stagge, or other beast. When they goe to warres they cary about with them their idol, of whom they aske counsel, as the Romans were woont of the Oracle of Apollo. They sing songs as they march towardes the battell in stead of drummes and trumpets: their warres are very cruell and bloody, by reason whereof, and of their civill dissentions which have happened of late yeeres amongst them, the people are marvelously wasted, and in some places the countrey left desolate.

Adjoyning to this countrey aforesaid called Secotan beginneth a countrey called Pomouik, belonging to another king whom they call Piamacum, and this king is in league with the next king adjoyning towards the setting of the Sunne, and the countrey Newsiok, situate upon a goodly river called Neus: these kings have mortall warre with Wingina king of Wingandacoa: but about two yeeres past there was a peace made betweene the King Piemacum, and the Lord of Secotan, as these men which we have brought with us to England, have given us to understand: but there remaineth a mortall malice in the Secotanes, for many injuries & slaughters done upon them by this Piemacum. They invited divers men, and thirtie women of the best of his countrey to their towne to a feast: and when they were altogether merry, & praying before their Idoll, which is nothing els but a meer illusion of the devill, the captaine or Lord of the town came suddenly upon thē, and slewe them every one, reserving the women and children: and these two have oftentimes since perswaded us to surprise Piemacum in his towne, having promised and assured us, that there will be found in it great store of commodities. But whether their perswasion be to the ende they may be revenged of their enemies, or for the love they beare to us, we leave that to the tryall hereafter.

Beyond this Island called Roanoak, are maine Islands, very plentifull of fruits and other naturall increases, together with many townes, and villages, along the side of the continent, some bounding upon the Islands, and some stretching up further into the land.

When we first had sight of this countrey, some thought the first land we saw to bee the continent: but after we entred into the Haven, we saw before us another mighty long Sea: for there lyeth along the coast a tracte of Islands, two hundreth miles in length, adjoyning to the Ocean sea, and betweene the Islands, two or three entrances: when you are entred betweene them, these Islands being very narrow for the most part, as in most places sixe miles broad, in some places lesse, in few more, then there appeareth another great sea, containing in bredth in some places, forty, and in some fifty, in some twenty miles over, before you come unto the continent: and in this inclosed Sea there are above an hundreth Islands of divers bignesses, whereof one is sixteene miles long, at which we were, finding it a most pleasant and fertile ground; replenished with goodly Cedars, and divers other sweete woods, full of Corrants, of flaxe, and many other notable commodities,which we at that time had no leasure to view Besides this island there are many, as I

have sayd, some of two, or three, or foure, of five miles, some more, some lesse, most beautifull and pleasant to behold, replenished with Deere, Conies, Hares and divers beasts, and about them the goodliest and best fish in the world, and in greatest abundance.

Thus, Sir, we have acquainted you with the particulars of our discovery made this present voyage, as farre foorth as the shortnesse of the time we there continued would affoord us to take viewe of: and so contenting our selves with this service at this time, which wee hope here after to inlarge, as occasion and assistance shalbe given, we resolved to leave the countrey, and to apply ourselves to returne for England, which we did accordingly, and arrived safely in the West of England about the middest of September.

And whereas wee have above certified you of the countrey taken in possession by us to her Majesties use, and so to yours by her Majesties grant, wee thought good for the better assurance thereof to record some of the particular Gentlemen & men of accompt, who then were present, as witnesses of the same, that thereby all occasion of cavill to the title of the countrey, in her Majesties behalfe may be prevented, which otherwise, such as like not the action may use and pretend, whose names are:

Master PHILIP AMADAS, } *Captaines.*
Master ARTHUR BARLOW, }

William Greenvile, John Wood, James Browewich, Henry Greene, Benjamin Wood, Simon Ferdinando, Nicholas Petman, John Hewes, *of the companie.*

We brought home also two of the Savages, being lustie men, whose names were Wanchese and Manteo.

Amistad, CASE OF THE. A Portuguese slaver landed a cargo of kidnapped Africans near Havana; a few days afterwards they were placed on board the *Amistad* to be taken to Principe. On the voyage the negroes, led by Cinque, captured the vessel, but killed only the captain and the cook. They then ordered the white crew to take the ship to Africa; but the sailors brought her into American waters, where she was seized by Lieutenant Geding, of the United States brig *Washington,* and brought into New London, Conn., Aug. 29, 1839. A committee, consisting of S. S. Jocelyn, Joshua Leavitt, and Lewis Tappan, was appointed in New York to solicit funds and employ counsel to protect the rights of the negroes. After a great struggle the court, through Justice Story, pronounced them free. Their return to Africa founded the Mendi mission.

Ammen, DANIEL, naval officer; born in Brown county, O., May 15, 1820; entered the navy as a midshipman in 1836. In 1861–62 he commanded the gunboat *Seneca* in the South Atlantic blockading fleet. His bravery was conspicuous in the battle of Port Royal, Nov. 7, 1861. Later, under Dupont's command, he took part in all the operations on the coasts of Georgia and Florida. In the engagements with Fort McAllister, March 3, 1863, and with Fort Sumter, April 7, 1863, he commanded the monitor *Patapsco.* In the attacks on Fort Fisher, in December, 1864, and January, 1865, he commanded the *Mohican.* He was promoted to rear-admiral in 1877, and was retired June 4, 1878. Afterwards he was a member of the board to locate the new Naval Observatory, and a representative of the United States at the Interoceanic Ship Canal Congress in Paris. He designed a cask balsa to facilitate the landing of troops and field artillery; a life-raft for steamers; and the steel ram *Katahdin.* His publications include *The Atlantic Coast* in *The Navy in the Civil War Series; Recollections of Grant;* and *The Old Navy and the New.* He died in Washington, D. C., July 11, 1898.

Ammidown, EDWARD HOLMES, merchant; born in Southbridge, Mass., Oct. 28, 1820; was graduated at Harvard College in 1853. After travelling for several years in the United States and Europe he engaged in mercantile business in New York City in 1860; later became a director in several banks, insurance companies, etc. In 1881 he was elected president of the American Protective Tariff League: and in 1882 chairman of the Metropolitan Industrial League. In 1890 President Harrison appointed him a commissioner for the World's Columbian Exposition, but he declined the post. He is the author of numerous political articles, including *National Illiteracy; Capital and Labor;* etc.

Amnesty Proclamations. As a consequence of the secession of the Southern States and the war that ensued, four very important amnesty proclamations were issued by Presidents of the United States. The first one was by President Lincoln, Dec. 8, 1863. The text of the proclamation is as follows:

President Lincoln in 1863.—Whereas, in and by the Constitution of the United States, it is provided that the President "shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment"; and whereas a rebellion now exists whereby the loyal State governments of several States have for a long time been subverted, and many persons have committed and are now guilty of treason against the United States; and whereas, with reference to said rebellion and treason, laws have been enacted by Congress declaring forfeitures and confiscation of property and liberation of slaves, all upon terms and conditions therein stated; and also declaring that the President was thereby authorized at any time thereafter, by proclamation, to extend to persons who may have participated in the existing rebellion, in any State or part thereof, pardon and amnesty, with such exceptions and at such times and on such conditions as he may deem expedient for the public welfare; and whereas the congressional declaration for limited and conditional pardon accords with well-established judicial exposition of the pardoning power; and whereas, with reference to said rebellion, the President of the United States has issued several proclamations with provisions in regard to the liberation of slaves; and whereas it is now desired by some persons heretofore engaged in said rebellion to resume their allegiance to the United States, and to reinaugurate loyal State governments within and for their respective States. Therefore,

I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, do proclaim, declare, and make known to all persons who have, directly or by implication, participated in the existing rebellion, except as hereinafter excepted, that a full pardon is hereby granted to them, and each of them, with restoration of all rights of property, excepting as to slaves, and in property cases where rights of third parties shall have intervened, and upon the condition that every such person shall take and subscribe an oath, and thenceforward keep and maintain such oath inviolate; and which oath shall be registered for permanent preservation, and shall be of the tenor and effect following, to wit:

"I, ———, do solemnly swear, in presence of Almighty God, that I will henceforth faithfully support, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States, and the union of the States thereunder; and that I will in like manner abide by and faithfully support all acts of Congress passed during the existing rebellion with reference to slaves, so long and so far as not repealed, modified, or held void by Congress, or by decision of the Supreme Court; and that I will, in like manner, abide by and faithfully support all proclamations of the President made during the existing rebellion having reference to slaves, so long and so far as not modified or declared void by decision of the Supreme Court. So help me God."

The persons excepted from the benefits of the foregoing provisions are: all who are, or shall have been, civil or diplomatic officers or agents of the so-called Confederate government; all who have left judicial stations under the United States to aid the rebellion; all who are, or shall have been, military or naval officers of said so-called Confederate government, above the rank of colonel in the army, or of lieutenant in the navy; all who left seats in the United States Congress to aid the rebellion; all who resigned commissions in the army or navy of the United States, and afterwards aided the rebellion; and all who have engaged in any way in treating colored persons, or white persons in charge of such, otherwise than lawfully as prisoners of war, and which persons may have been found in the United States service as soldiers, seamen, or in any other capacity.

And I do further proclaim, declare, and make known, that whenever, in any of the States of Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, and North Carolina, a number of persons, not less than one-tenth in number of the votes cast in such State at the Presidential election of the year of our Lord 1860, each having taken the oath aforesaid, and not having since violated it, and being a qualified

voter by the election law of the State existing immediately before the so-called act of secession, and excluding all others, shall re-establish a State government which shall be republican, and in nowise contravening said oath, such shall be recognized as the true government of the State, and the State shall receive thereunder the benefits of the constitutional provision which declares that the "United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the legislature, or the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence."

And I do further proclaim, declare, and make known that any provision which may be adopted by such State government in relation to the freed people of such State, which shall recognize and declare their permanent freedmen, provide for their education, and which may yet be consistent, as a temporary arrangement, with their present condition as a laboring, landless, and homeless class, will not be objected to by the national executive. And it is suggested as not improper that, in constructing a loyal State government in any State, the name of the State, the boundary, the subdivisions, the constitution, and the general code of laws, as before the rebellion, be maintained, subject only to the modifications made necessary by the conditions hereinbefore stated, and such others, if any, not contravening said conditions, and which may be deemed expedient by those framing the new State government.

To avoid misunderstanding, it may be proper to say that this proclamation, so far as it relates to State governments, has no reference to States wherein loyal State governments have all the while been maintained. And for the same reason, it may be proper to further say that whether members sent to Congress from any State shall be admitted to seats, constitutionally rests exclusive with the respective Houses, and not to any extent with the executive. And still further, that this proclamation is intended to present to the people of the States wherein the national authority has been suspended, and loyal State governments have been subverted, a mode in and by which the national authority and loyal State governments may be re-established within said States, or in any of them; and, while the mode presented is the best the executive can suggest, with his present impressions, it must not be understood that no other possible mode would be acceptable.

Given under my hand, at the city of Washington, the 8th day of December, A.D. 1863, and of the independence of the United States of America the eighty-eighth. ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

President Johnson in 1865.—The second one was issued by President Johnson, under date of May 29, 1865, and was the beginning of the reconstruction measures. The following is the text:

Whereas, the President of the United States, on the 8th day of December, 1863, did, with the object of suppressing the existing rebellion, to induce all persons to lay down their arms, to return to their loyalty, and to restore the authority of the United States, issue proclamations offering amnesty and pardon to certain persons who had directly or by implication, engaged in said rebellion; and

Whereas, many persons who had so engaged in the late rebellion have, since the issuance of said proclamation, failed or neglected to take the benefits offered thereby; and

Whereas, many persons who have been justly deprived of all claims to amnesty and pardon thereunder, by reason of their participation directly or by implication in said rebellion, and continued in hostility to the government of the United States since the date of said proclamation, now desire to apply for and obtain amnesty and pardon:

To the end, therefore, that the authority of the government of the United States may be restored, and that peace, and order, and freedom may be established, I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do proclaim and declare, that I hereby grant to all persons who have directly or indirectly participated in the existing rebellion, except as hereafter excepted, amnesty and pardon, with restoration of all rights of property, except as to slaves, except in cases where legal proceedings under the laws of the

United States, providing for the confiscation of property of persons engaged in rebellion, have been instituted, but on the condition, nevertheless, that every such person shall take and subscribe to the following oath, which shall be registered, for permanent preservation, and shall be of the tenor and effect following, to wit:

"I, ———, do solemnly swear or affirm, in presence of Almighty God, that I will henceforth support, protect, and faithfully defend the Constitution of the United States, and will, in like manner, abide by and faithfully support all laws and proclamations which have been made during the existing rebellion with reference to the emancipation of slaves. So help me God."

The following classes of persons are excepted from the benefits of this proclamation:

1. All who are or have been pretended diplomatic officers, or otherwise domestic or foreign agents of the pretended Confederate States.

2. All who left judicial stations under the United States to aid in the rebellion.

3. All who have been military or naval officers of the pretended Confederate government above the rank of colonel in the army, and lieutenant in the navy.

4. All who have left their seats in the Congress of the United States to aid in the rebellion.

5. All who have resigned or tendered the resignation of their commissions in the army and navy of the United States to evade their duty in resisting the rebellion.

6. All who have engaged in any way in treating otherwise than lawfully as prisoners of war persons found in the United States service as officers, soldiers, seamen, or in other capacities.

7. All persons who have been or are absentees from the United States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion.

8. All military or naval officers in the rebel service who were educated by the government in the Military Academy at West Point, or at the United States Naval Academy.

9. All persons who held the pretended offices of governors of the States in insurrection against the United States.

10. All persons who left their homes within the jurisdiction and protection of the United States, and passed beyond the Federal military lines into the so-called Confederate States for the purpose of aiding the rebellion.

11. All persons who have engaged in the destruction of the commerce of the United States upon the high seas, and all persons who have made raids into the United States from Canada, or been engaged in destroying the commerce of the United States on the lakes and rivers that separate the British provinces from the United States.

12. All persons who, at a time when they seek to obtain the benefits hereof by taking the oath herein prescribed, are in military, naval, or civil confinement or custody, or under bond of the military or naval authorities or agents of the United States as prisoners of any kind, either before or after their conviction.

13. All persons who have voluntarily participated in said rebellion, the estimated value of whose taxable property is over $20,000.

14. All persons who have taken the oath of amnesty as prescribed in the President's proclamation of Dec. 8, 1863, or the oath of allegiance to the United States since the date of said proclamation, and who have not thenceforward kept the same inviolate; provided, that special application may be made to the President for pardon by any person belonging to the excepted classes, and such clemency will be extended as may be consistent with the facts of the case and the peace and dignity of the United States. The Secretary of State will establish rules and regulations for administering and recording the said amnesty oath, so as to insure its benefits to the people, and guard the government against fraud.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this the 29th day of May, 1865, and of the independence of America the 89th.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

President Johnson in 1868. — In this year President Johnson issued two such proclamations. The first dated July 4, pardoning all persons engaged in the Civil War except those under presentment or indictment in any court of the United

States having competent jurisdiction, was as follows:

Whereas, in the month of July, A.D. 1861, in accepting the conditions of civil war, which was brought about by insurrection and rebellion in several of the States which constitute the United States, the two Houses of Congress did solemnly declare that the war was not waged on the part of the government in any spirit of oppression, nor for any purpose of conquest or subjugation, nor for any purpose of overthrowing or interfering with the rights or established institutions of the States, but only to defend and maintain the supremacy of the Constitution of the United States, and to preserve the Union with all the dignity, equality, and rights of the several States unimpaired; and that, so soon as these objects should be accomplished, the war on the part of the government should cease;

And whereas, the President of the United States has heretofore, in the spirit of that declaration, and with the view of securing for its ultimate and complete effect, set forth several proclamations, offering amnesty and pardon to persons who had been or were concerned in the aforesaid rebellion, which proclamations, however, were attended with prudential reservations and exceptions then deemed necessary and proper, and which proclamations were respectively issued on the 8th day of December, 1863, on the 26th day of March, 1864, on the 29th day of May, 1865, and on the 7th day of September, 1867;

And whereas, the said lamentable Civil War has long since altogether ceased, with an acknowledged guarantee to all the States of the supremacy of the federal Constitution and the government thereunder; and there no longer exists any reasonable ground to apprehend a renewal of the said Civil War, or any foreign interference, or any unlawful resistance by any portion of the people of any of the States to the Constitution and laws of the United States;

And whereas, it is desirable to reduce the standing army, and to bring to a speedy termination military occupation, martial law, military tribunals, abridgment of freedom of speech and of the press, and suspension of the privilege of *habeas corpus*, and the right of trial by jury—such encroachments upon our free institutions in time of peace being dangerous to public liberty, incompatible with the individual rights of the citizens, contrary to the genius and spirits of our republican form of government, and exhaustive of the national resources;

And whereas, it is believed that amnesty and pardon will tend to secure a complete and universal establishment and prevalence of municipal law and order, in conformity with the Constitution of the United States, and to remove all appearances or presumptions of a retaliatory or vindictive policy on the part of the government, attended by unnecessary disqualifications, pains, penalties, confiscations, and disfranchisements; and on the contrary, to promote and procure complete fraternal reconciliation among the whole people, with due submission to the Constitution and laws;

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do, by virtue of the Constitution and in the name of the people of the United States, hereby proclaim and declare, unconditionally and without reservation, to all and to every person who directly or indirectly participated in the late insurrection or rebellion, excepting such person or persons as may be under presentment or indictment in any court of the United States having competent jurisdiction, upon a charge of treason or other felony, a full pardon and amnesty for the offence of treason against the United States, or of adhering to their enemies during the late Civil War, with restoration of all rights of property, except as to slaves, and except also as to any property of which any person may have been legally divested under the laws of the United States.

In testimony whereof I have signed these presents with my hand, and have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto fixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States of America the ninety-third. ANDREW JOHNSON.

The second, issued Dec. 25, proclaimed

unconditionally a full pardon and amnesty. It was as follows:

Whereas, the President of the United States has heretofore set forth several proclamations offering amnesty and pardon to persons who had been or were concerned in the late rebellion against the lawful authority of the government of the United States, which proclamations were severally issued on the 8th day of December, 1863, on the 6th day of March, 1864, on the 29th day of May, 1865, on the 7th day of September, 1867, and on the 4th day of July in the present year; and,

Whereas, the authority of the federal government having been re-established in all the States and Territories within the jurisdiction of the United States, it is believed that such prudential reservations and exceptions, as at the dates of said several proclamations were deemed necessary and proper, may now be wisely and justly relinquished, and that a universal amnesty and pardon, for participation in said rebellion, extended to all who have borne any part therein, will tend to secure permanent peace, order, and prosperity throughout the land, and to renew and fully restore confidence and fraternal feeling among the whole people, and their respect for and attachment to the national government, designed by its patriotic founders for the general good:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by virtue of the power and authority in me vested by the Constitution, and in the name of the sovereign people of the United States, do hereby proclaim and declare unconditionally and without reservation, to all and to every person who directly or indirectly participated in the late insurrection or rebellion, a full pardon and amnesty for the offences of treason against the United States, or of adhering to their enemies during the late Civil War, with restoration of all rights, privileges, and immunities under the Constitution and the laws which have been made in pursuance thereof.

In testimony whereof I have signed these presents with my hand, and have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the twenty-fifth day of December, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States of America the ninety-third. ANDREW JOHNSON.

Anaesthesia. See MORTON, WILLIAM THOMAS GREEN.

Anarchists. The battle on the part of society against the anarchists in the United States may be said to have been fought and won. From the close of the Civil War up to 1886, the number of anarchists in the country constantly increased. The organization is supposed to have had its origin in Russia, the object of its existence being apparently to secure greater freedom for the people through the assassination of those government officers, most notably the Czar, who to the popular notion embodied tyranny. The members of anarchist bands knew but five of their fellows, though the society at one time is said to have had over 40,000 members. The members were divided into groups of six, one member of each group communicating with one of another, thus forming a great chain, but diminishing the fear of traitors. The oaths of the members are said to be of a most terrible character. From its original inception anarchism soon changed until the members of the society in all lands were regarded as standing solely for the overthrow of existing institutions. The growth of the society in this country began to alarm police officials. The agitators kept busy among the unemployed masses in all the large cities. Dire predictions were made when on May 4, 1886, an anarchistic meeting in Chicago resulted in such a disturbance that the people became aroused and anarchy received a death-blow. On the night of May 4, a great number of anarchists held a meeting in Haymarket Square, Chicago. The city was in a restless state at the time because of frequent labor troubles. One of the speakers waved a red flag and shouted to the people to get dynamite and blow up the houses of the rich. At these words a small body of police charged the anarchists. Suddenly a dynamite bomb was thrown at the officers, and five officers and four civilians in the crowd were killed. Seven of the leading anarchists were arrested, and after a trial

were condemned to death. The sentences of two of them were afterwards commuted to life imprisonment, but in 1894 they were pardoned by Governor Altgeld. One of the anarchists committed suicide while in prison and four were hanged. On Dec. 9, 1893, Auguste Vaillant attempted to throw a bomb at M. Dupuy during a session of the French Chamber of Deputies, but it struck the gallery, and, exploding, wounded four deputies and many spectators. On April 4, 1900, an unsuccessful attempt was made to kill the Prince of Wales, now King Edward VII., at Brussels. The following is a list of recent assassinations by anarchists: Sadi Carnot, president of France, by Sante Ironimo Caserio, an Italian, at Lyons, June 24, 1894; Canovas del Castillo, prime minister of Spain, by Golli, an Italian, at Santa Agüeda, April 22, 1897; Elizabeth, empress of Austria, by Luchini, an Italian, at Geneva, Sept. 10, 1898; Humbert, king of Italy, by Angelo Bresci, an Italian, at Monza, Italy, July 29, 1900; William McKinley, president of the United States, by Leon Czolgosz, at Buffalo, N. Y., shot Sept. 6, died Sept. 14, 1901; General Bobrikoff, governor-general of Finland, by Schaumann, a Finn, June 17, 1904; Wenceslas K. de Plehve, Russian minister of the interior, by Leglo, a supposed Finn, at St. Petersburg, July 28, 1904. See ALTGELD, JOHN PETER; SOCIALISM.

Anderson, ALEXANDER, the first engraver on wood in America; born in New York, April 21, 1775. His father was a Scotchman, who printed a Whig newspaper in New York, called *The Constitutional Gazette,* until he was driven from the city by the British in 1776. After the yellow fever in 1798, he abandoned the practice of medicine and made engraving his life profession. Having seen an edition of Bewick's *History of Quadrupeds,* illustrated with wood-engravings by that master, Anderson first learned that *wood* was used for such a purpose. From that time he used it almost continuously until a few months before his death, in Jersey City, N. J., Jan. 17, 1870. A vast number of American books illustrated by Anderson attest the skill and industry of this pioneer of the art of wood-engraving in America.

Anderson, EDWIN HATFIELD, librarian; born in Zionsville, Ind., Sept. 27, 1861; graduated at Wabash College in 1883; appointed librarian-in-chief of the Carnegie Library, Pittsburg, Pa., in 1895.

Anderson, FORT, North Carolina. Attacked simultaneously on Feb. 18, 1865, by Admiral Porter with fifteen vessels and by the army under Schofield and Terry. The garrison of 6,000 Confederates under Hoke fled late in the day.

Anderson, LARZ, diplomatist; born in Paris, France, Aug. 15, 1866; graduated at Harvard College in 1888; spent two years in foreign travel; was appointed second secretary of the United States legation and embassy in London in 1891–93, and first secretary of the embassy in Rome in 1893–97. During the war with Spain he served as a captain and adjutant-general of United States volunteers.

Anderson, MARTIN BREWER, educator; born in Brunswick, Me., Feb. 12, 1815; was of Scotch descent on his father's side; was graduated at Waterville (now Colby) College in 1840; and in 1850 became editor and part proprietor of the New York *Recorder,* a Baptist publication. A university having been established at Rochester by the Baptists, he was called to the presidency of it in 1853, and held the office till 1889. In 1868 he was offered the presidency of Brown University, but declined it. He was one of the most efficient incorporators and earlier trustees of Vassar College. He died Feb. 26, 1890.

Anderson, RASMUS BJORN, author and diplomatist; born in Albion, Wis., of Norwegian parentage, Jan. 12, 1846; was graduated at the Norwegian Lutheran College in Decorah, Ia., in 1866; was Professor of Scandinavian Languages and Literature at the University of Wisconsin in 1875–84, and United States minister to Denmark in 1885–89. He is author of *Norse Mythology; Viking Tales of the North; America Not Discovered by Columbus; The Younger Edda; First Chapter of Norwegian Immigration;* several works in Norwegian; and also many translations of Norse writings.

Anderson, RICHARD HERRON, military officer; born in South Carolina, Oct. 7, 1821; was graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the war with Mexico; and in March, 1861, he left the army and became a brigadier-general in the Confed-

erate service. He was wounded at Antietam; commanded a division at Gettysburg; and was made lieutenant-general in 1864. He died in Beaufort, S. C., June 26, 1879.

Anderson, Robert, defender of Fort Sumter in 1861; born near Louisville, Ky., June 14, 1805. He was a graduate of West Point Military Academy, and entered the artillery. He was instructor for a while at West Point. He served in the Black Hawk War (*q. v.*), and in Florida. In May, 1838, he became assistant adjutant-general on the staff of General Scott, and accompanied that officer in his campaign in Mexico, where he was severely wounded in the battle of El Molino del Rey (*q. v.*). In 1857 he was commissioned major of artillery. In October, 1860, Secretary Floyd removed Colonel Gardiner from the command of the defences of Charleston Harbor, because he attempted to increase his supply of ammunition, and Major Anderson was appointed to succeed him. He arrived there on the 20th, and was satisfied, by the tone of conversation and feeling in Charleston, and by the military drills going on, that a revolution was to be inaugurated there. He communicated his suspicions to Adjutant-General Cooper. In that letter Anderson announced to the government the weakness of the forts in Charleston Harbor, and urged the necessity of immediately strengthening them. He told the Secretary of War that Fort Moultrie, his headquarters, was so weak as to invite attack. "Fort Sumter and Castle Pinckney," he said, "must be garrisoned immediately, if the government determines to keep command of this harbor." Fort Sumter, he said, had 40,000 lb. of cannon powder and other ammunition, but was lying completely at the mercy of an enemy. He informed the Secretary of evident preparations for a speedy seizure of the defences of the harbor by South Carolinians. General Scott, aware of the weakness of the Southern forts, urged the government, from October until the close of December, to reinforce those on the coasts of the slave States. But nothing was done, and Anderson, left to his own resources, was compelled to assume grave responsibilities. He began to strengthen Castle Pinckney, near the city, and Fort Moultrie. When the South Carolina ordinance of secession had passed, menaces became more frequent and alarming. He knew that the convention had appointed commissioners to repair to Washington and demand the surrender of the forts in Charleston Harbor, and he was conscious that the latter were liable to be attacked at any moment. He knew, too, that if he should remain in Fort Moultrie, their efforts would be successful. Watch-boats were out continually spying his movements. He had applied to the government for instructions, but received none, and he determined to leave Fort Moultrie with his garrison and take post in stronger Fort Sumter. This he did on the evening of Dec. 26. The vigilance of the Confederates had been eluded. They, amazed, telegraphed to Floyd. The latter, by telegraph, ordered Anderson to explain his conduct in acting without orders. Anderson calmly replied that it was done to save the government works. In Sumter, he was a thorn in the flesh of the Confederates. Finally they attacked him, and after a siege and furious bombardment, the fort was evacuated in April, 1861. In May, 1861, he was appointed a brigadier-general in the regular army, and commander of the Department of the Cumberland, but failing health caused him to retire from the service in 1863, when he was brevetted a major-general. In 1868 he went to Europe for the benefit of his health, and died in Nice, France, Oct. 27, 1871. See Pickens, Fort; Sumter, Fort.

ROBERT ANDERSON.

Anderson, Thomas McArthur, sol-

dier; born in Chillicothe, O., Jan. 22, 1836; entered the army as a private during the Civil War, and rose to be brigadier-general, March, 1899. He commanded the 1st division, 8th army corps, in the first expedition to the Philippines.

Andersonville. See CONFEDERATE PRISONS.

Andrade, JOSÉ, diplomatist; born in Mérida, Venezuela, in 1838; studied law in Columbia College; was successively treasurer, secretary, and governor of the state of Zulia in 1880–84; representative for the same state in the National House of Representatives in 1884–88; and was appointed plenipotentiary to settle the claims of France against Venezuela in 1888. In 1889–90 he represented Venezuela in Washington, D. C., as a member of the Venezuelan and Marine Commissions; was also a delegate to the International Maritime Conference, and to the Pan-American Congress; in 1893 served in the National Assembly which framed the new constitution of Venezuela; and in the same year was appointed minister to the United States. In 1895 he was a member of the United States and Venezuela Claims Commission in Washington. On Feb. 2, 1897, he signed the treaty of arbitration between Venezuela and England to arrange the boundary dispute; the same year was a delegate to the Universal Postal Congress in Washington; and in 1899 was appointed envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Great Britain.

André, JOHN, British military officer; born in London in 1751; was the son of a Genevan, who was a merchant in London. After receiving an education at Geneva, young André returned, and entered a mercantile house in London when he was eighteen years of age. He was a youth of great genius—painted well and wrote poetry with fluency. His literary tastes brought to him the acquaintance of literary people. Among these was the poetess, Anna Seward, of Lichfield, to whose cousin, Honora Sneyd, André became warmly attached. They were betrothed, but their youth caused a postponement of their nuptials, and André entered the army and came to America, in 1774, as lieutenant of the Royal Fusileers. With them, in Canada, he was taken prisoner by Montgomery, at St. Johns (Nov. 2, 1775), and was sent to Lancaster, Pa. In December, 1776, he was exchanged, and promoted to captain in the British army. He was appointed aide to General Grey in the summer of 1777, and on the departure of that officer he was placed on the staff of Sir Henry Clinton, by whom he was promoted (1780) to the rank of major, and appointed adjutant-general of the British forces in America. His talents were appreciated, and wherever taste was to be displayed in any arrangements, the matter was left to André. He was the chief actor in promoting and arranging the Mischianza, and took a principal part in all private theatrical performances. Sir Henry employed him to carry on the correspondence with Arnold respecting the

JOHN ANDRÉ.

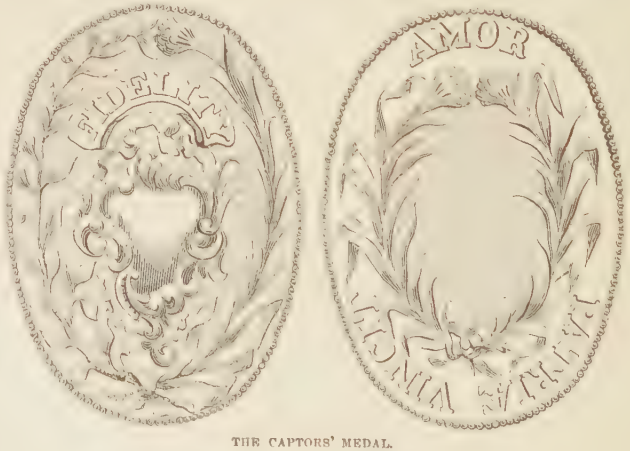
betrayal of his country. Having held a personal interview with the traitor, he was returning to New York on horseback, when he was arrested, near Tarrytown, conveyed to Tappan, in Rockland county, nearly opposite, tried as a spy, and was condemned and executed, Oct. 2, 1780.

In March, 1901, Lord Grey, in examining a lot of family papers that had not been disturbed since the close of the Revolutionary War, discovered what was believed to be the original diary of Major André, in which is given a narrative of the campaign of 1777–78 day by day.

The story of Major André's career, in connection with the complot of SIR HENRY CLINTON and GEN. BENEDICT ARNOLD

(*qq. v.*), occupies a conspicuous place in our history, and sympathy for the offender, not unmixed with denunciations of the court of inquiry that condemned him, have been abundant, and not always wise or just. The court that condemned him saw clearly, by his own confession, that he deserved the fate of a spy; and if they had been swayed by other motives than those of justice and the promotion of the public good, they had full justification in the course of the British officers in pursuit of the British policy towards the Americans. Scores of good men, not guilty of any offence but love of country and defence of their rights, had been hanged by the positive orders of Cornwallis in the South; and Sir Henry Clinton himself, who ungenerously attributed the act of the board of inquiry in condemning André, and of Washington in approving the sentence, to "personal rancor," for which no cause existed, had approved of ten-fold more "inhumanity" in the acts of his subordinates. One of them wrote to Clinton, "I have ordered, in the most positive manner, that every militiaman who has borne arms with us, and afterwards joined the enemy, shall be immediately hanged." This included all officers and men, even those, as in South Carolina, where this subaltern was serving, who had been *forced* into the royal service. This order Clinton approved, and sent it to Secretary Germain. That secretary answered Clinton's letter, saying, "The most disaffected will now be convinced that we are not afraid to punish." The order was rigorously executed. Men of great worth and purity were hanged, without the forms of a trial, for bearing arms in defence of their liberty; André was hanged, after an impartial trial, for the crime of plotting and abetting a scheme for the enslavement of 3,000,000 people. He deserved his fate according to the laws of war. It was just towards him and merciful to a nation. Cicero justly said, in regard to Catiline, "Mercy towards a traitor is an injury to the state." André was treated with great consideration by Washington, whose headquarters at Tappan were near the place of his trial. The commander-in-chief supplied the former with all needed refreshments for his table. Washington did not have a personal interview with André, but treated him as leniently as the rules of war would allow.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT TAPPAN.



THE CAPTORS' MEDAL.

The captors of Major André were John

Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart. Washington recommended Congress to reward them for their fidelity. They were each presented with a silver medal, and they were voted a pension of $200 a year each in silver or its equivalent. Monuments have been erected to the memory of the captors—to Paulding, in St. Peter's church-yard, near Peekskill; to Van Wart, by the citizens of Westchester county, in 1829, in the Presbyterian church-yard at Greenburg, of which church the captor was an active officer and chorister for many years; and to Williams, in Schoharie county, N. Y.

The King caused a monument to be placed in Westminster Abbey to the memory of André. It seems to be quite out of place among the "worthies" of England, for he was hanged as a spy, and was a plotter for the ruin of a people struggling for justice. But his monarch honored him for an attempted state service, knighted his brother, and pensioned his family. His

ANDRÉ'S MONUMENT IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

remains were at first interred at the place of his execution, and in 1821 were exhumed and conveyed to England. A monument was erected at the place of his execution to commemorate the event by the late Cyrus W. Field, but it was soon afterwards blown up by unknown persons.

I.—L.

Andrew, JOHN ALBION, war governor of Massachusetts; was born in Windham,

JOHN A. ANDREW.

Me., May 31, 1818; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1837, and became conspicuous as an anti-slavery advocate. He was chosen governor of Massachusetts, in 1860, by the largest popular vote ever cast for any candidate for that office. Foreseeing a conflict with the Confederates, he took means to make the State militia efficient; and, within a week after the President's call for troops, he sent five regiments of infantry, a battalion of riflemen, and a battery of artillery to the assistance of the government. He was active in raising troops during the war and providing for their comfort. An eloquent orator, his voice was very efficacious. He was re-elected in 1862, and declined to be a candidate in 1864. He died in Boston, Mass., Oct. 30, 1867.

Andrews, CHARLES MCLEAN, historian; born at Wethersfield, Conn., Feb. 22, 1863; was graduated at Trinity College, Hartford, in 1884; and was called to the Chair of History in Bryn Mawr College in 1889. His publications include *The River Towns of Connecticut; The Old English Manor; The Historical Development of Modern Europe;* and articles in reviews and historical periodicals.

Andrews, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, lawyer and diplomatist; born in Hillsboro, N. H., Oct. 27, 1829; was educated at the Harvard Law School; admitted to the Massachusetts bar in 1850, and later set-

tled in St. Cloud, Minn. In the Civil War he rose from the ranks to brevet major-general in the Union army. In 1869–77 he was United States minister to Norway and Sweden, and in 1882–85 consul-general to Rio de Janeiro. He has published a *History of the Campaign of Mobile; Brazil, Its Conditions and Prospects; Administrative Reform,* etc.

Andrews, Elisha Benjamin, educator; born in Hinsdale, N. H., Jan. 10, 1844; graduated at Brown University in 1870, and at Newton Theological Institute in 1874; was president of Brown University in 1889–98; superintendent of the Chicago Public Schools in 1898–1900; and in the last year became chancellor of the University of Nebraska. He is author of *History of the United States; An Honest Dollar, a Plea for Bimetallism,* etc.

Andrews, Ethan Allen, educator; born in New Britain, Conn., April 7, 1787; was Professor of Ancient Languages at the University of North Carolina in 1822–28; and editor (with Jacob Abbott) of the *Religious Magazine,* but was chiefly engaged in compiling classical text-books. In 1850 he edited the well-known *Latin-English Lexicon,* based on Freund; and *Andrews' and Stoddard's Latin Grammar.* He died March 4, 1858.

Andrews, George Leonard, military officer; born in Bridgewater, Mass., Aug. 31, 1828; was graduated at West Point in 1851, entering the engineer corps. He resigned in 1855. In 1861 he became first lieutenant-colonel and then colonel of the 2d Massachusetts Regiment. He was made brigadier-general in 1862, and led a brigade in Banks's expedition in Louisiana and against Port Hudson in 1863. He assisted in the capture of Mobile, and was appointed Professor of French at West Point Feb. 27, 1871; was retired Aug. 31, 1892; and died April 4, 1899.

Andrews, John Newman, military officer; born in Wilmington, Del., Sept. 16, 1838; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1860; promoted first lieutenant in 1861; colonel, in 1895; and was retired April 1, 1899. From June 3, 1898, to Feb. 24, 1899, he was a brigadier-general of volunteers. After the Civil War he served in a number of Indian campaigns, and in 1898 through the war with Spain.

Andrews, Lorrin, missionary; born in East Windsor, Conn., April 29, 1795; was educated at Jefferson College and Princeton Theological Seminary. In 1827 he went to the Hawaiian Islands as a missionary, and founded there, in 1831, the Lahainaluna Seminary, which subsequently became the Hawaii University, where he passed ten years as a professor. In 1845 he was appointed a judge and secretary of the privy council. His writings include a translation of a portion of the Bible into the Hawaiian language; several works on the literature and antiquities of Hawaii, and a Hawaiian dictionary. He died Sept. 29, 1868.

Andrews, Stephen Pearl, author; born in Templeton, Mass., March 22, 1812. After practising law in the South, he settled in New York in 1847, and became a prominent abolitionist. He gave much attention to phonographic reporting, and to the development of a universal philosophy which he named "Integralism," and to a universal language named "Alwato." He was author of numerous works relating to these subjects, besides *Comparison of the Common Law with the Roman, French, or Spanish Civil Law on Entails, etc.; Love, Marriage and Divorce; The Labor Dollar; Transactions of the Colloquium* (an organization established by himself and friends for philosophical discussion), etc. He died in New York, May 21, 1886.

Andros, Sir Edmund, born in London, Dec. 6, 1637. In 1674 he succeeded his father as bailiff of Guernsey Island. In the same year he was appointed governor of the province of New York. He administered public affairs wholly in the interest of his master, the Duke of York. His private life was unblemished; but such was his public career that he acquired the title of "tyrant." Andros became involved in serious disputes with the colonists. In 1680 he deposed Philip Carteret, and seized the government of East Jersey. The next year he was recalled, and retired to Guernsey, after having cleared himself of several charges that had been preferred against him. The New England governments were consolidated in 1686, and Andros was appointed governor-general. Under instructions, he forbade all printing in those colonies.

He was authorized to appoint and remove his own council, and with their consent to enact laws, levy taxes, and control the militia. These privileges were exercised in a despotic manner, and his government became odious. He attempted to seize the charter of Connecticut, but failed. New York and New Jersey were added to his jurisdiction in 1688.

In the former he succeeded the clear-headed and right-minded Governor Dongan. He entered New York City early in August, with a viceregal commission to rule that province in connection with all New England. He had journeyed from Boston, and was received by Colonel Bayard's regiment of foot and horse. He was entertained by the loyal aristocracy. In the midst of the rejoicings, news came that the Queen, the second wife of James II., had given birth to a son, who became heir to the throne. The event was celebrated, on the evening of the day of the arrival of the intelligence, by bonfires in the streets and a feast at the City Hall. At the latter, Mayor Van Cortlandt became so hilarious that he made a notable display of his loyalty to the Stuarts by setting fire to his hat and periwig, and waving the burning coverings of his head over the banquet on the point of his straight-sword. When news came to Boston of the revolution in England, Governor Andros affected to disbelieve it, and imprisoned those who brought it. With the people the "wish was father to the thought," and they gave credence to the rumor and arranged a popular insurrection. A mob gathered in the streets of Boston. The sheriff who attempted to disperse them was made a prisoner; so also was the commander of the frigate *Rose* as he landed from his boat. The militia assembled in arms at the town-house under their old officers. Andros and his council withdrew in alarm to a fort which crowned an eminence still known as Fort Hill. Simon Bradstreet, a former governor, then eighty-seven years of age, was seen in the crowd by the militia, and immediately proclaimed the chief magistrate of the redeemed colony. The magistrates and other citizens formed themselves into a council of safety. The ready pen of Cotton Mather wrote a proclamation, and Andros was summoned to surrender. A barge sent from the *Rose* to take off the governor and his council was intercepted and captured. Andros yielded, and, with the royal ex-President Dudley, Randolph, and his other chief partisans, was imprisoned (April 18, 1689). Andros, by the connivance of a sentinel, escaped to Rhode Island, but was brought back. In July following he was sent to England, by royal order, with a committee of his accusers, but was acquitted without a formal trial. Andros was appointed governor of Virginia in 1692, where he became popular; but, through the influence of Commissary Blair, he was removed in 1698. In 1704–6 he was governor of Guernsey. He died in London, Feb. 24, 1714.

Angell, James Burrill, educator and diplomatist; born in Scituate, R. I., Jan. 7, 1829; was graduated at Brown University in 1849; Professor of Modern Languages and Literature at Brown University in 1853–60; president of the University of Vermont in 1866–71; and since 1871 president of the University of Michigan. In 1880–81 he was United States minister to China; in 1887 a member of the Anglo-American Commission on Canadian Fisheries; in 1896 chairman of the Canadian-American Commission on Deep Waterways from the Great Lakes to the Sea; and in 1897–98 United States minister to Turkey. He is author of numerous addresses and magazine articles.

Anglican Church. The earliest Anglican congregation in New England was organized in 1630, when about 1,000 emigrants arrived in Massachusetts from England, under the leadership of John Winthrop, who had been appointed governor under the royal charter. Winthrop brought the charter with him. On the day before they sailed from the Isle of Wight the leaders sent an address to "the rest of the brethren in and of the Church of England," and spoke of that Church with affection as their "dear mother." This was to correct a "misreport" that the emigrants intended to separate from the Church. Notwithstanding this dutiful address, when they set foot on American soil a sense of freedom overcame their allegiance, and, following the example of the "Plymouthians" and Endicott, they established separate churches and chose their own officers. Without any express

renunciation of the authority of the Church of England, the Plymouth people had laid aside its liturgy and rituals. Endicott followed this example at Salem, and had the sympathy of three "godly ministers" there—Higginson, Skelton, and Bright; also of Smith, a sort of interloper. A church was organized there—the first in New England, for that at Plymouth was really in a formative state yet. All of the congregation were not prepared to lay aside the liturgy of the Church of England, and two of them (John and Samuel Browne) protested, and set up a separate worship. The energetic Endicott promptly arrested the "malcontents" and sent them to England. Following up the system adopted at Salem, the emigrants, under the charter of 1630, established Nonconformist churches wherever settlements were planted—Charlestown, Watertown, Boston, Dorchester, etc. At Salem the choice of minister and teacher was made as follows: "Every fit member wrote in a note the name whom the Lord moved him to think was fit for pastor," and so likewise for teacher. Skelton was chosen for the first office, Higginson for the second. When they accepted, three or four of the gravest members of the church laid their hands upon Mr. Skelton and Mr. Higginson, using prayer therewith. Such was the first New England ordination. See PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH; REFORMED EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

Anglo-American Commission, a joint commission appointed by the United States and the British governments in 1898 for the purpose of preparing a plan by which the controversial questions pending between the United States and Canada might be definitely settled. As originally constituted the American members were: United States Senators Fairbanks and Gray, Congressman Dingley, ex-Secretary of State Foster, and Reciprocity Commissioner Kasson; and the British members: Lord Herschell, Sir Wilfred Laurier, Sir Richard Cartwright, Sir Louis H. Davies, and Mr. J. Charlton, a member of the Dominion Parliament. Of these commissioners, Congressman Dingley died Jan. 13, 1899, and Lord Herschell, March 1, 1899. The questions assigned to the commission for consideration were as follows:

Seal-fisheries of Bering Sea; fisheries off Atlantic and Pacific coasts; Alaska-Canadian boundary; transportation of merchandise by land and water between the countries; transit of merchandise from one country to be delivered in the other beyond the frontier; alien labor laws; mining rights of citizens or subjects of each country within the territory of the other; readjustment and concession of customs duties; revision of agreement of 1817 respecting naval vessels on the lakes; definition and marking of frontier; conveyance of prisoners through each other's territory; reciprocity in wrecking and salvage rights. Several sessions were held in Canada and in Washington without practical results.

Anglo-American League, THE, a society founded at Stafford House, London, England, July 13, 1898, for purposes indicated in the following resolution: "Considering that the peoples of the British Empire and of the United States of America are closely allied in blood, inherit the same literature and laws, hold the same principles of self-government, recognize the same ideas of freedom and humanity in the guidance of their national policy, and are drawn together by strong common interests in many parts of the world, this meeting is of opinion that every effort should be made, in the interest of civilization and peace, to secure the most cordial and constant co-operation between the two nations." British subjects and citizens of the United States are eligible to membership. A representative committee was appointed with the Right Hon. James Bryce, M. P., as chairman.

Anglo-American Understanding, BASIS OF AN. See ABBOTT, LYMAN.

Annapolis, city, county seat of Anne Arundel county, and capital of the State of Maryland; on the Severn River, 20 miles south by east of Baltimore; is the seat of the United States Naval Academy and of St. John's College; population in 1890, 7,604; 1900, 8,402. Puritan refugees from Massachusetts, led by Durand, a ruling elder, settled on the site of Annapolis in 1649, and, in imitation of Roger Williams, called the place Providence. The next year a commissioner of Lord Baltimore organized there the county of Anne Arundel, so named in compliment to Lady Baltimore, and Providence was call-

ed Anne Arundel Town. A few years later it again bore the name of Providence, and became the seat of Protestant influence and of a Protestant government, disputing the legislative authority with the Roman Catholic government at the ancient capital, St. Mary's. In 1694 the latter was abandoned as the capital of the province, and the seat of government was established on the Severn. The village was finally incorporated a city, and named Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. It has remained the permanent political capital of Maryland. It was distinguished for the refinement and wealth of its inhabitants and extensive commerce, being a port of entry long before the foundations of Baltimore were laid.

On the morning of Oct. 15, 1774, a vessel owned by Anthony Stewart, of Annapolis, entered the port with seventeen packages of tea among her cargo, assigned to Stewart. When this became known, and that Stewart had paid the duty on the tea, the people gathered, and resolved that the plant should not be landed. Another meeting was appointed, and the people declared that ship and her cargo should be burned. Stewart disclaimed all intention to violate non-importation agreements, but the people were inexorable. They had gathered in large numbers from the surrounding country. Charles Carroll and others, fearing mob violence, advised Stewart to burn the vessel and cargo with his own hands, which he did. The vessel was run ashore and destroyed, when the people cheered and dispersed. This was the last attempt at importation of tea into the English-American colonies.

On April 14, 1755, General Braddock and Commodore Keppel, with Governors Shirley, of Massachusetts; De Lancey, of New York; Morris, of Pennsylvania; Sharpe, of Maryland, and Dinwiddie, of Virginia, held a congress at Annapolis. Braddock had lately arrived as commander-in-chief of the British forces in America. Under his instructions, he first of all directed the attention of the government to the necessity of raising a revenue in America. He expressed astonishment that no such fund was already established. The governors told him of their strifes with their respective assemblies, and assured Braddock that no such fund could ever be established in the colonies without the aid of Parliament. The Congress then resolved unanimously that it was the opinion of its members that it should be proposed to his Majesty's ministers to "find out some method of compelling" the colonists to establish such a public fund, and for assessing the several governments in proportion to their respective abilities. At once all the crown officers in America sent voluminous letters to England, urging such a measure upon the government.

On July 26, 1775, a convention assembled at Annapolis, and formed a temporary government, which, recognizing the Continental Congress as invested with a general supervision of public affairs, managed its own internal affairs through a provincial Committee of Safety and subordinate executive committees, appointed in every county, parish, or hundred. It directed the enrolment of forty companies of minute-men, authorized the emission of over $500,000 in bills of credit, and extended the franchise to all freemen having a visible estate of £210, without any distinction as to religious belief. The convention fully resolved to sustain Massachusetts, and meet force by force if necessary.

Gen. B. F. Butler was in Philadelphia on April 19, 1861, when he first heard of the assault on Massachusetts troops in Baltimore. He had orders to go to Washington through Baltimore. It was evident that he could not do so without trouble, and he took counsel with Gen. Robert Patterson, the commander of the Department of Washington. He also consulted Commodore Dupont, commander of the navy-yard there, and it was agreed that the troops under General Butler should go from Perryville, on the Susquehanna, to Annapolis, by water, and thence across Maryland, seizing and holding Annapolis Junction by the way. Butler laid before his officers a plan which contemplated seizing and holding Annapolis as a means of communication, and to make a forced march with a part of his troops from that port to Washington. He wrote to the governor of Massachusetts to send the Boston Light Artillery to Annapolis, and the next morning he proceeded with his troops to Perryville, embarked in the powerful steam ferry-boat *Maryland*, and

at a little past midnight reached Annapolis. The town and Naval Academy were in the hands of the Confederates, and were all lighted up in expectation of the arrival of a body of Confederates, by water, from Baltimore, to assist them in seizing the venerable and venerated frigate *Constitution*, lying there, and adding her to the Confederate navy. The arrival of these troops was just in time to save her. Many of Butler's troops were seamen at home, and these assisted in getting the *Constitution* to a place of safety beyond the bar. Governor Hicks was at Annapolis, and advised Butler not to land Northern troops. "They are not *Northern* troops," said Butler. "They are a part of the whole militia of the United States, obeying the call of the President." This was the root of the matter—the idea of nationality as opposed to State supremacy. He called on the governor and the mayor of Annapolis. To their remonstrances against his landing and marching through Maryland, Butler replied that the orders and demands of his government were imperative, and that he should land and march on the capital as speedily as possible. He assured them that peaceable citizens should be unmolested and the laws of Maryland be respected.

On the 22d the New York 7th Regiment, Colonel Lefferts, arrived at Annapolis on a steamer. All the troops were landed and quartered at the Naval Academy. The Confederates, meanwhile, had torn up the railway, taken the locomotives to pieces, and hidden them. Terrible stories reached Butler of a great force of Confederates at Annapolis Junction. He did not believe them, and moved on, after taking formal military possession of Annapolis and the railway to Annapolis Junction. Two Massachusetts companies seized the railway station, in which they found a disabled locomotive concealed. "Does any one know anything about this machine?" inquired Butler. "Our shop made that engine, general," said Charles Homans, of the Beverly Light Guard. "I guess I can put her in order and run her." "Do it," said the general; and it was soon done, for that regiment was full of engineers and mechanics. It was a remarkable regiment. Theodore Winthrop said that if the words were given, "Poets, to the front!" or, "Painters, present arms!" or, "Sculptors, charge bayonets!" there would be ample responses. The hidden rails were hunted up and found in thickets, ravines, and bottoms of streams, and the road was soon in such a condition that the troops moved on, on the morning of the 24th, at the rate of about one mile an hour, laying the track anew and building bridges. Skirmishers went ahead and scouts on the flanks. The distance to the Junction from Annapolis was 20 miles. They saw none of the terrible Marylanders they had been warned against. The troops reached Annapolis Junction on the morning of the 25th, when the 7th Regiment went on to Washington and the Massachusetts regiment remained to hold the railroads. Other troops arrived at Annapolis, and General Scott ordered Butler to remain there, hold the town and road, and superintend the forwarding of troops to Washington. The "Department of Annapolis" was created, which embraced the country 20 miles on each side of the railway to within 4 miles of the capital. See BALTIMORE.

Annapolis Convention, 1786. See ALEXANDRIA; CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Anne, QUEEN, second daughter of James II. of England: born at Twickenham, near London, Feb. 6, 1664. Her parents became Roman Catholics; but she, educated in the principles of the Church of England, remained a Protestant. In 1683 she was married to Prince George of Denmark. She took the side of her sister Mary and her husband in the revolution that drove her father from the throne. She had intended to accompany her father in his exile to France, but was dissuaded by Sarah Churchill, chief lady of the bedchamber (afterwards the imperious Duchess of Marlborough), for whom she always had a romantic attachment. By the act of settlement at the accession of William and Mary, the crown was guaranteed to her in default of issue to these sovereigns. This exigency happening, Anne was proclaimed queen (March 8, 1702) on the death of William. Of her seventeen children, only one lived beyond infancy—Duke of Gloucester—who died at the age of eleven years. Feeble in character, but very amiable, Anne's reign became a con-

spicuous one in English history, for she was governed by some able ministers, and she was surrounded by eminent literary men. Her reign has been called the "Augustan Age of English Literature." The Duke of Marlborough, the husband of her bosom friend, was one of her greatest

QUEEN ANNE.

military leaders. A greater part of her reign was occupied in the prosecution of the War of the Spanish Succession, known in America as "Queen Anne's War." She died Aug. 1, 1714.

The treaty of Ryswick produced only a lull in the inter-colonial war in America. It was very brief. James II. died in France in September, 1701, and Louis XIV., who had sheltered him, acknowledged his son, Prince James (commonly known as The Pretender), to be the lawful heir to the English throne. This naturally offended the English, for Louis had acknowledged William as king in the Ryswick treaty. The British Parliament had also settled the crown on Anne, so as to secure a Protestant succession. The English were also offended because Louis had placed his grandson, Philip of Aragon, on the Spanish throne, and thus extended the influence of France among the dynasties of Europe. On the death of William III. (March 8, 1702) Anne ascended the throne, and on the same day the triple alliance between England, Holland, and the German Empire against France was renewed. Soon afterwards, chiefly because of the movements of Louis above mentioned, England declared war against France, and their respective colonies in America took up arms against each other. The war lasted eleven years. Fortunately, the Five Nations had made a treaty of neutrality (Aug. 4, 1701) with the French in Canada, and thus became an impassable barrier against the savages from the St. Lawrence. The tribes from the Merrimac to the Penobscot had made a treaty of peace with New England (July, 1703); but the French induced them to violate it; and before the close of that summer a furious Indian raid occurred along the whole frontier from Casco to Wells. So indiscriminate was the slaughter that even Quakers were massacred.

The immediate cause of this outbreak seems to have been an attack upon and plunder of the trading-post of the young Baron de Castine, at the mouth of the Penobscot. In March, 1704, a party of French and Indians attacked Deerfield, on the Connecticut River, killed forty of the inhabitants, burned the village, and carried away 112 captives. Similar scenes occurred elsewhere. Remote settlements were abandoned, and fields were cultivated only by armed parties united for common defence. This state of things became insupportable, and in the spring of 1707 Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire prepared to chastise the Indians in the east. Rhode Island had not suffered, for Massachusetts sheltered that colony, but the inhabitants humanely helped their afflicted neighbors. Connecticut, though threatened from the north, refused to join in the enterprise. Early in June (1707), 1,000 men under Colonel Marsh sailed from Nantucket for Port Royal, Acadia, convoyed by an English man-of-war. The French were prepared for them, and only the destruction of property outside the fort there was accomplished. The war continued, with occasional distressing episodes. In September, 1710, an armament of ships and troops left Boston and sailed for Port Royal, in connection with a fleet from England with troops under Colonel Nicholson. They captured Port Royal and altered the name to Annapolis, in compliment to the Queen.

Acadia (*q. v.*) was annexed to England, under the old title of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland.

The following year an expedition moved against Quebec. Sir Hovenden Walker arrived at Boston (June 25, 1711) with an English fleet and army, which were joined by New England forces; and on Aug. 15 fifteen men-of-war and forty transports, bearing about 7,000 men, departed for the St. Lawrence. Meanwhile, Nicholson had proceeded to Albany, where a force of about 4,000 men were gathered, a portion of them Iroquois Indians. These forces commenced their march towards Canada Aug. 28. Walker, like Braddock nearly fifty years later, haughtily refused to listen to experienced subordinates, and lost eight ships and about 1,000 men on the rocks at the mouth of the St. Lawrence on the night of Sept. 2. Disheartened by this calamity, Walker returned to England with the remainder of the fleet, and the colonial troops went back to Boston. On hearing of this failure, the land force marching to attack Montreal retraced their steps. Hostilities were now suspended, and peace was concluded by the treaty of Utrecht, April 11, 1713. The eastern Indians sued for peace, and at Portsmouth the governors of Massachusetts and New Hampshire made a covenant of peace (July 24) with the chiefs of the hostile tribes. A peace of thirty years ensued.

Anne, Fort, a military post in New York in the Revolutionary War. When the British took possession of Ticonderoga (July 6, 1777), Burgoyne ordered gunboats to pursue the bateaux laden with stores, etc., from the fort. The boom-bridge barrier across the lake there was soon broken, and the pursuing vessels overtook the fugitive boats near Skenesborough, and destroyed them and their contents. Colonel Long, in command of the men in them, escaped with his people and the invalids, and, after setting fire to everything combustible at Skenesborough (now Whitehall), they hastened to Fort Anne, a few miles in the interior, followed by a British regiment. When near the fort, Long turned on his pursuers and routed them; but the latter being reinforced, Long was driven back. He burned Fort Anne, and fled to Fort Edward, on the Hudson.

Annexations. See Acquisition of Territory.

ANNEXED TERRITORY

Annexed Territory, Status of. The following is a consideration of the relations to the United States of the several Territories that were annexed to it, written by ex-President Benjamin Harrison:

A legal argument upon this subject is quite outside of my purpose, which is to consider in a popular rather than a professional way some of the questions that arise, some of the answers that have been proposed, and some of the objections to these answers.

We have done something out of line with American history, not in the matter of territorial expansion, but in the character of it. Heretofore the regions we have taken over have been contiguous to us, save in the case of Alaska—and, indeed, Alaska is contiguous, in the sense of being near. These annexed regions were also, at the time of annexation, either unpeopled or very sparsely peopled by civilized men, and were further, by their situation, climate, and soil, adapted to the use of an increasing American population. We have now acquired insular regions, situated in the tropics and in another hemisphere, and hence unsuitable for American settlers, even if they were not, as they are, already populated and their lands already largely taken up.

We have taken over peoples rather than lands, and these chiefly of other race stocks—for there are "diversities of tongues." The native labor is cheap and threatens competition, and there is a total absence of American ideas and methods of life and government among the eight or more millions of inhabitants in the Philippines. We have said that the Chinese will not "homologate"; and the Filipinos will certainly be slow. Out of the too-late contemplation of these very real and serious problems has arisen the proposition to solve them, as many think, by wresting

our government from its constitutional basis; or at least, as all must agree, by the introduction of wholly new views of the status of the people of the Territories, and of some startlingly new methods of dealing with them. It is not open to question, I think, that, if we had taken over only the Sandwich Islands and Porto Rico, these new views of the status of the people of our Territories, and these new methods of dealing with them, would never have been suggested or used.

The question of the constitutional right of the United States to acquire territory, as these new regions have been acquired, must, I suppose, be taken by every one to have been finally adjudged in favor of that right. The Supreme Court is not likely to review the decision announced by Chief-Justice Marshall.

It is important to note, however, that the great chief-justice derives the power to acquire territory by treaty and conquest, from the Constitution itself. He says:

"The Constitution confers absolutely on the government of the Union the powers of making war and of making treaties; consequently that government possesses the power of acquiring territory either by conquest or by treaty."

While this decision stands, there is no room for the suggestion that the power of the United States to acquire territory, either by a conquest confirmed by treaty, or by a treaty of purchase from a nation with which we are at peace, is doubtful, and as little for the suggestion that this power is an extra-constitutional power. The people, then, have delegated to the President and Congress the power to acquire territory by the methods we have used in the cases of Porto Rico and the Hawaiian and Philippine Islands. But some have suggested that this power to acquire new territory is limited to certain ends; that it can only be used to acquire territory that is to be, or is capable of being, erected into States of the Union. If this view were allowed, the attitude of the courts to the question would not be much changed; for they could not inquire as to the purpose of Congress, nor, I suppose, overrule the judgment of Congress as to the adaptability of territory for the creation of States. The appeal would be to Congress to limit the use of the power.

The islands of Hawaii, of Porto Rico, and of the Philippine Archipelago have been taken over, not for a temporary purpose, as in the case of Cuba, but to have and to hold forever as a part of the region over which the sovereignty of the United States extends. We have not put ourselves under any pledge as to them—at least, not of a written sort. Indeed, we have not, it is said, made up our minds as to anything affecting the Philippines, save this—that they are a part of our national domain, and that the inhabitants must yield obedience to the sovereignty of the United States so long as we choose to hold them.

Our title to the Philippines has been impeached by some upon the ground that Spain was not in possession when she conveyed them to us. It is a principle of private law that a deed of property adversely held is not good. If I have been ejected from a farm to which I claim title, and another is in possession under a claim of title, I must recover the possession before I can make a good conveyance; otherwise I sell a lawsuit and not a farm, and that the law counts to be immoral. It has not been shown, however, that this principle has been incorporated into international law; and, if that could be shown, there would still be need to show that Spain has been effectively ousted.

It is very certain, I suppose, that if Great Britain had, during our Revolutionary struggle, concluded a treaty of cession of the colonies to France, we would have treated the cession as a nullity, and continued to fight for liberty against the French. No promises of liberal treatment by France would have appeased us.

But what has that to do with the Philippine situation? There are so many points of difference. We were Anglo-Saxons! We were capable of self-government. And, after all, what we would have done under the conditions supposed has no bearing upon the law of the case. It is not to be doubted that any international tribunal would affirm the completeness of our legal title to the Philippines.

The questions that perplex us relate to the status of these new possessions, and

to the rights of their civilized inhabitants who have elected to renounce their allegiance to the Spanish crown, and either by choice or operation of law have become American—somethings. What? Subjects or citizens? There is no other status, since they are not aliens any longer, unless a newspaper heading that recently attracted my attention offers another. It ran thus: "Porto Ricans not citizens of the United States *proper*." Are they citizens of the United States *improper*, or improper citizens of the United States? It seems clear that there is something improper. To call them "citizens of Porto Rico" is to leave their relations to the United States wholly undefined.

Now, in studying the questions whether the new possessions are part of the United States, and their free civilized inhabitants citizens of the United States, the Constitution should, naturally, be examined first. Whatever is said there is final—any treaty or act of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding. The fact that a treaty must be constitutional, as well as an act of Congress, seems to have been overlooked by those who refer to the treaty of cession as giving to Congress the right to govern the people of Porto Rico, who do not retain their Spanish allegiance, according to its pleasure. Has the Queen Regent, with the island, decorated Congress with one of the jewels from the Spanish crown?

In Pollard *vs.* Hogan, 3 Howard, the court says:

"It cannot be admitted that the King if Spain could by treaty, or otherwise, impart to the United States any of his royal prerogatives; and much less can it be admitted that they have capacity to receive or power to exercise them."

A treaty is a part of the supreme law of the land in the same sense that an act of Congress is, not in the same sense that the Constitution is. The Constitution of the United States cannot be abrogated or impaired by a treaty. Acts of Congress and treaties are only a part of the "supreme law of the land" when they pursue the Constitution. The Supreme Court has decided that a treaty may be abrogated by a later statute, on the ground that the statute is the later expression of the sovereign's will. Whether a statute may be abrogated by a later treaty, we do not know; but we do know that neither a statute nor a treaty can abrogate the Constitution.

If the Constitution leaves the question open whether the inhabitants of Porto Rico shall or shall not upon annexation become citizens, then the President and the Senate may exercise that discretion by a treaty stipulation that they shall or shall not be admitted as citizens; but if, on the other hand, the Constitution gives no such discretion, but itself confers citizenship, any treaty stipulation to the contrary is void. To refer to the treaty in this connection is to beg the question.

If we seek to justify the holding of slaves in a territory acquired by treaty, or the holding of its civilized inhabitants in a condition less favored than that of citizenship, by virtue of the provisions of a treaty, it would seem to be necessary to show that the Constitution, in the one case, allows slavery, and, in the other, a relation of civilized people to the government that is not citizenship.

Now the Constitution declares (Fourteenth Amendment) that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States." This disposes of the question, unless it can be maintained that Porto Rico is not a part of the United States.

But the theory that any part of the Constitution, of itself, embraces the Territories and their people is contested by many. Congress seems to have assumed the negative, though among the members there was not entire harmony as to the argument by which the conclusion was reached. It is contended, by most of those who defend the Porto-Rican bill, that the Constitution expends itself wholly upon that part of the national domain that has been organized into States, and has no reference to, or authority in, the Territories, save as it has constituted a government to rule over them.

No one contends that every provision of the Constitution applies to the Territories. Some of them explicitly relate to the States only. The contention of those who opposed the Porto-Rican legislation is that all of those general provisions of

the Constitution which impose limitation upon the powers of the legislative, executive, and judicial departments must apply to all regions and people where or upon whom those powers are exercised. And, on the other hand, those who deny most broadly that the Constitution applies to the Territories seem practically to allow that much of it does. The power of appointment and pardon in the Territories, the confirmation of Territorial officers, the methods of passing laws to govern the Territories, the keeping and disbursement of Federal taxes derived from the Territories, the veto power, and many other things, are pursued as if the Constitution applied to the cases.

But, in theory, it is claimed by these that no part of the Constitution applies except the Thirteenth Amendment, which prohibits slavery, and that only because the prohibition expressly includes "any place subject to their jurisdiction." This amendment was proposed by Congress on Feb. 1, 1865—the day on which Sherman's army left Savannah on its northern march; and the words "any place subject to their jurisdiction" were probably added because of the uncertainty as to the legal status of the States in rebellion, and not because of any doubt as to whether Nebraska, then a Territory, was a part of the United States.

The view that some other general limitations of the Constitution upon the powers of Congress must relate to all regions and all persons was, however, adopted by some members of the Senate Committee in the report upon the Porto-Rican bill, where it is said:

"Yet, as to all prohibitions of the Constitution laid upon Congress while legislating, they operate for the benefit of all for whom Congress may legislate, no matter where they may be situated, and without regard to whether or not the provisions of the Constitution have been extended to them; but this is so because the Congress, in all that it does, is subject to and governed by those restraints and prohibitions. As, for instance, Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; no title of nobility shall be granted; no bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed; neither shall the validity of contracts be impaired, nor shall property be taken without due process of law; nor shall the freedom of speech or of the press be abridged; nor shall slavery exist in any place subject to the jurisdiction of the United States. These limitations are placed upon the exercise of the legislative power without regard to the place or the people for whom the legislation in a given case may be intended."

That is to say, every general constitutional limitation of the powers of Congress applies to the Territories. The brief schedule of these limitations given by the committee are all put in the negative form, "Congress shall not"; but surely it was not meant that there may not be quite as effective a limitation by the use of the affirmative form. If a power is given to be used in one way only, all other uses of it are negatived by necessary implication. When it is said, "All duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States," is not that the equivalent of "No duty or excise that is not uniform shall be levied in the United States"? And is not the first form quite as effective a limitation of the legislative power over the subject of indirect taxation as that contained in the fourth clause of the section is upon the power to lay direct taxes?

In the latter the negative form is used, thus:

"No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census of enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken."

This discrimination between express and implied limitations, benevolently attempted to save for the people of the Territories the bill of rights provision of the Constitution, will not, I think, endure discussion.

There are only three views that may be offered, with some show of consistency in themselves.

First. That Congress, the executive, and the judiciary are all created by the Constitution as governing agencies of the nation called the United States; that their powers are defined by the Constitution and run throughout the nation; that all the limitations of their powers attach to every region and to all civilized people under the sovereignty of the United States,

unless their inapplicability appears from the Constitution itself; that every guarantee of liberty, including that most essential one, uniform taxation, is to be allowed to every free civilized man and woman who owes allegiance to the United States; that the use of the term "throughout the United States" does not limit the scope of any constitutional provision of the States that would otherwise be applicable to the Territories as well; but that these words include the widest sweep of the nation's sovereignty, and so the widest limit of congressional action.

Secondly. That the term "The United States" defines an inner circle of the national sovereignty composed of the States alone; that, whenever these words are used in the Constitution, they must be taken to have reference only to the region and to the people within this inner circle; but that, when these words of limitation are omitted, the constitutional provision must, unless otherwise limited, be taken to include all lands and people in the outer circle of the national sovereignty.

Thirdly. That the Constitution has relation only to the States and their people; that all constitutional limitations of the powers of Congress and the executive are to be taken to apply only to the States and their citizens; that the power to acquire territory is neither derived from the Constitution nor limited by it, but is an inherent power of national life; that the government we exercise in the Territories is not a constitutional government, but an absolute government, and that all or any of the things prohibited by the Constitution as to the States, in the interest of liberty, justice, and equality, may be done in the Territories; that, as to the Territories, we are under no restraints save such as our own interests or our benevolence may impose.

I say "benevolence"; but must not that quality be submerged before this view of the Constitution is promulgated? It seems to have had its origin in a supposed commercial necessity, and we may fairly conclude that other recurring necessities will guide its exercise. Is it too much to say that this view of the Constitution is shocking?

Within the States, it is agreed that the powers of the several departments of the national government are severely restrained. We read that Congress shall have power, and again that Congress shall not have power. But neither these grants nor these inhibitions have, it is said, any relation to the Territories. Against the laws enacted by the Congress, or the acts done by the executive, there is no appeal, on behalf of the people of the Territories, to any written constitution, or bill of rights, or charter of liberty. We offer them only this highly consolatory thought: a nation of free Americans can be trusted to deal benevolently with you.

How obstinately wrong we were in our old answer to the Southern slave-holder! It is not a question of kind or unkind treatment, but of human rights; not of the good or bad use of power, but of the power, we said. And so our fathers said, in answer to the claim of absolute power made on behalf of the British Parliament. As to the States, the legislative power of Congress is "all legislative powers herein granted." (Art. 1, sec. 1.) As to the Territories, it is said to be all legislative power—all that any parliament ever had or ever claimed to have, and as much more as we may claim—for there can be no excess of pretension where power is absolute. No law relating to the Territories, passed by Congress, can, it is said, be declared by the Supreme Court to be inoperative, though every section of it should contravene a provision of the Constitution.

An outline of a possible law may aid us to see more clearly what is involved:

Sec. 1. Suspends permanently the writ of *habeas corpus* in Porto Rico.

Sec. 2. Declares an attainder against all Porto Ricans who have displayed the Spanish flag since the treaty of peace.

Sec. 3. Grants to the native mayors of Ponce and San Juan the titles of Lord Dukes of Porto Rico, with appropriate crests.

Sec. 4. Any Porto Rican who shall speak disrespectfully of the Congress shall be deemed guilty of treason. One witness shall be sufficient to prove the offence, and on conviction the offender shall have his tongue cut out; and the conviction shall work corruption of blood.

Sec. 5. The Presbyterian Church shall be the established Church of the island, and

no one shall be permitted to worship God after any other form.

Sec. 6. All proposed publications shall be submitted to a censor, and shall be printed only after he has approved the same. Public meetings for the discussion of public affairs are prohibited, and no petitions shall be presented to the government.

Sec. 7. No inhabitant of Porto Rico shall keep or bear arms.

Sec. 8. The soldiers of the island garrison shall be quartered in the houses of the people.

Sec. 9. The commanding officer of the United States forces in the island shall have the right, without any warrant, to search the person, house, papers, and effects of any one suspected by him.

Sec. 10. Any person in Porto Rico, in civil life, may be put upon trial for capital or other infamous crimes upon the information of the public prosecutor, without the presentment or indictment of a grand jury; may be twice put in jeopardy for the same offence; may be compelled to be a witness against himself, and may be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and his property may be taken for public uses without compensation.

Sec. 11. Criminal trials may, in the discretion of the presiding judge, be held in secret, without a jury, in a district prescribed by law after the commission of the offence, and the accused shall, or not, be advised before arraignment of the nature or cause of the accusation, and shall, or not, be confronted with the witnesses against him, and have compulsory process to secure his own witnesses, as the presiding judge may in his discretion order.

Sec. 12. There shall be no right in any suit at common law to demand a jury.

Sec. 13. A direct tax is imposed upon Porto Rico for Federal uses without regard to its relative population; the tariff rates at San Juan are fixed at 50 per cent., and those at Ponce at 15 per cent. of those levied at New York.

New Mexico, or Arizona, or Oklahoma might be substituted for Porto Rico in the bill; for, I think, those who affirm that the Constitution has no relation to Porto Rico do so upon grounds that equally apply to all other Territories.

Now, no one supposes that Congress will ever assemble in a law such shocking provisions. But, for themselves, our fathers were not content with an assurance of these great rights that rested wholly upon the sense of justice and benevolence of the Congress. The man whose protection from wrong rests wholly upon the benevolence of another man or of a congress, is a slave—a man without rights. Our fathers took security of the governing departments they organized; and that, notwithstanding the fact that the choice of all public officers rested with the people. When a man strictly limits the powers of an agent of his own choice, and exacts a bond from him, to secure his faithfulness, he does not occupy strong ground when he insists that another person, who had no part in the selection, shall give the agent full powers without a bond.

If there is anything that is characteristic in American constitutions, State and national, it is the plan of limiting the powers of all public officers and agencies. "You shall do this; you may do this; you shall not do this"—is the form that the schedule of powers always takes. This grew out of our experience as English colonies. A government of unlimited legislative or executive powers is an un-American government. And, for one, I do not like to believe that the framers of the national Constitution and of our first State constitutions were careful only for their own liberties.

This is the more improbable when we remember that the territory then most likely to be acquired would naturally be peopled by their sons. They cherished very broad views as to the rights of men. Their philosophy of liberty derived it from God. Liberty was a Divine gift to be claimed for ourselves only upon the condition of allowing it to "all men." They would write the law of liberty truly, and suffer for a time the just reproach of a departure from its precepts that could not be presently amended.

It is a brave thing to proclaim a law that condemns your own practices. You assume the fault and strive to attain. The fathers left to a baser generation the attempt to limit God's law of liberty to white men. It is not a right use of the fault of slavery to say that, because of it,

our fathers did not mean "all men." It was one thing to tolerate an existing condition that the law of liberty condemned, in order to accomplish the union of the States, and it is quite another thing to create a condition contrary to liberty for a commercial profit.

In a recent discussion of these questions, sent me by the author, I find these consolatory reflections: "And yet the inalienable rights of the Filipinos, even if not guaranteed by the Constitution, are amply secured by the *fundamental, unwritten* laws of our civilization." Does this mean that the specific guarantees of individual liberty found in our Constitution have become a part of "our civilization," and that they apply in Porto Rico and the Philippines in such a sense that, if there is any denial of them by Congress or the executive, the courts can enforce them and nullify the law that infringes them? If that is meant, then as to all such rights this discussion is tweedledum and tweedledee—the Constitution does not apply, but all these provisions of it are in full force, notwithstanding.

Perhaps, however, it should be asked further, whether the rule of the uniformity of taxation is a part of the "law of our civilization"; for, without it, all property rights are unprotected. The man whose property may be taxed arbitrarily, without regard to uniformity within the tax district, and without any limitation as to the purposes for which taxes may be levied, does not own anything; he is a tenant at will.

But if these supposed "laws of our civilization" are not enforcible by the courts, and rest wholly for their sanction upon the consciences of presidents and congresses, then there is a very wide difference. The one is ownership, the other is charity. The one is freedom, the other slavery—however just and kind the master may be.

The instructions of the President to the Taft Philippine Commission seem to allow that any civil government under the authority of the United States that does not offer to the people affected by it the guarantees of liberty contained in the Bill of Rights sections of the Constitution is abhorrent. Speaking of these, he said:

"Until Congress shall take action, I directed that, upon every division and branch of the government of the Philippines, must be imposed these inviolable rules:

"'That no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; that private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation; that in all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence; that excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishment inflicted; that no person shall be put twice in jeopardy for the same offence, or be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; that the right to be secure against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be violated; that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall exist except as a punishment for crime; that no bill of attainder, or *ex post facto* law shall be passed; that no law shall be passed abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or of the rights of the people to peaceably assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances; that no law shall be made respecting the establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, and that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship without discrimination or preference shall forever be allowed.'"

The benevolent disposition of the President is well illustrated in these instructions. He conferred freely—"until Congress shall take action"—upon the Filipinos, who accepted the sovereignty of the United States and submitted themselves to the government established by the Commission, privileges that our fathers only secured after eight years of desperate war. There is this, however, to be noted, that our fathers were not content to hold these priceless gifts under a revocable license. They accounted that to hold these things upon the tenure of another man's benevolence was not to hold them at all. Their battle was for rights, not privileges—for a Constitution, not a letter of instructions.

The President's instructions apparently proceed upon the theory that the Filipinos, after civil government has superseded the military control, are not endowed under our Constitution, or otherwise, with any of the rights scheduled by him; that, if he does nothing, is silent, some or all of the things prohibited in his schedule may be lawfully done upon, and all the things allowed may be denied to, a people who owe allegiance to that free constitutional government we call the United States of America.

It is clear that those Porto Ricans who have not, under the treaty, declared a purpose to remain Spanish subjects, have become American citizens or American subjects. Have you ever read one of our commercial treaties with Great Britain or Germany, or any other of the kingdoms of the world? These treaties provide for trade intercourse, and define and guarantee the rights of the people of the respective nations when domiciled in the territory of the other. The descriptive terms run like this: "The subjects of her Britannic Majesty" on the one part, and "the citizens of the United States" on the other. Now, if the commercial privileges guaranteed by these treaties do not, in their present form, include the Porto Ricans who strewed flowers before our troops when they entered the island, we ought at once to propose to our "Great and Good Friends," the kings and queens of the earth, a modification of our conventions in their behalf.

Who will claim the distinction of proposing that the words "and subjects" be introduced after the word "citizens"? There will be no objection on the part of the king, you may be sure; the modification will be allowed smilingly.

We have never before found it necessary to treat the free civilized inhabitants of the Territories otherwise than as citizens of the United States.

It is true, as Mr. Justice Miller said, that the exclusive sovereignty over the Territories is in the national government; but it does not follow that the nation possesses the power to govern the Territories independently of the Constitution. The Constitution gives to Congress the right to exercise "exclusive legislation" in the District of Columbia; but "exclusive" is not a synonyme of "absolute." When the Constitution says that "treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort," there is a limitation of the legislative power; and it necessarily extends to every venue where the crime of treason against the United States may be laid, and to every person upon whom its penalties may be imposed.

This constitutional provision defining the crime of treason and prescribing the necessary proofs is a Bill of Rights provision. In England, under Edward II., "there was," it was said, "no man who knew how to behave himself, to do, speak or say, for doubt of the pains of such treasons." The famous statute of Edward III., defining treasons, James Wilson declares, "may well be styled the legal Gibraltar of England." (Wilson's Works [Andrews] vol. ii., p. 413.)

Mr. Madison, speaking of this section of the Constitution, says in the *Federalist:*

"But as new-fangled and artificial treasons have been the great engines by which violent factions, the natural offspring of free government, have usually wreaked their malignity on each other, the convention have with great judgment opposed a barrier to this peculiar danger, by inserting a constitutional definition of the crime," etc.

Mr. Madison believed that there was a real danger that statutes of treason might be oppressively used by Congress. What have we been doing, or what have we a purpose to do, that we find it necessary to limit the safeguards of liberty found in our Constitution, to the people of the States? Is it that we now propose to acquire territory for colonization, and not, as heretofore, for full incorporation? Is it that we propose to have crown colonies, and must have crown law? Is it that we mean to be a world power, and must be free from the restraints of a Bill of Rights? We shall owe deliverance a second time to these principles of human liberty, if they are now the means of delivering us from un-American projects.

The particular provision of the Constitution upon which Congress seems to have balked, in the Porto Rican legislation, was

a revenue clause—viz., the first paragraph of sec. 8 of art. 1, which reads:

"The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States."

There was only one door of escape from allowing the application of this clause to Porto Rico. It was to deny that the Territories are part of the United States.

It will be noticed that the descriptive term "The United States" is twice used in the one sentence—once in the clause defining the purposes for which only duties and imposts may be levied, and once in the clause requiring uniformity in the use of the power. Is there any canon of construction that authorizes us to give to the words "The United States" one meaning in the first use of them and another in the second? If in the second use the Territories are excluded, must they not also be excluded in the first? If the rule of uniformity does not apply to the Territories, how can the power to tax be used in the United States, to pay the debts and provide for the defence and general welfare of the Territories? Can duties be levied in New York and other ports of the States, to be expended for local purposes in Porto Rico, if the island is not a part of the United States?

Are the debts that may be contracted by what the law calls the body politic of "The People of Porto Rico" for local purposes, part of the debt of the United States—notwithstanding that the island is no part of the United States and the people are not citizens of the United States? But some one will say that the island is one of our outlying defences, and that fortifications and naval stations and public highways there are necessary to the "common defence." Well, is it also true that education and poor relief, and fire and police and health protection, and all other agencies of local order and betterment in Porto Rico, are included in the words "the general welfare of the United States"? It would seem that a region of which it can be said that its general welfare is the general welfare of the United States, must be a part of the United States, and its people citizens of the United States.

For the first time Congress has laid tariff duties upon goods passing from a Territory into the States. The necessity for this radical departure from the established practice of the government seems to have been to find a safe basis for the holding and governing of regions, the free introduction of whose products might affect the home industries unfavorably, and the admission of whose people to citizenship might imply future Statehood—or at least the right of migration and settlement in the States of an undesirable population. That the diversity of tongues in the Philippines, and the utter lack of the American likeness in everything there, presented strong reasons against the acquisition of the islands, I freely admit.

It must also be conceded that when, as we are told, Providence laid upon us the heavy duty of taking over and governing these islands, it was very natural that we should seek to find a way of governing them that would save us from some of the unpleasant consequences which a discharge of the duty in the old way involved. But do we not incur a greater loss and peril from that new doctrine, that our Congress and executive have powers not derived from the Constitution, and are subject to no restraint or limitations in the Territories, save such as they may impose upon themselves?

Are the civil rights of the dwellers on the mainland well secured against the insidious under-wear of greed and ambition, while we deny to the island dwellers, who are held to a strict allegiance, the only sure defence that civil rights can have—the guarantees of constitutional law? Burke saw in the absolute powers claimed for Parliament, in the American colonies, danger to the liberties of Parliament itself. As so often quoted, he said:

"For we are convinced, beyond a doubt, that a system of dependence which leaves no security to the people for any part of their freedom in their own hands, cannot be established in any inferior member of the British Empire without consequently destroying the freedom of that very body in favor of whose boundless pretensions such a scheme is adopted. We know and feel that arbitrary power over distant re-

gions is not within the competence, nor to be exercised agreeably to the forms or consistently with the spirit, of great popular assemblies."

Are we, in this day of commercial carnival, incapable of being touched by such considerations, either in our fears or in our sense of justice? Is it not likely to be true that the moral tone of the republic—our estimation of constitutional liberty—will be lessened by the creation of a body of civilized people over whom our flag waves as an emblem of power only? The flag cannot stand for the benevolent policies of an administration. It stands for more permanent things—for things that changing administrations have no power to change. Is it not in the nature of a mockery to raise the flag in Porto Rico and bid its hopeful people hail it as an emblem of emancipation, while the governor we have sent them reads a proclamation, from the foot of the staff, announcing the absolute power of Congress over them?

How would the pioneers of the West have regarded a declaration that they were not citizens of the United States, or a duty laid upon the furs then sent to the States, or upon the salt and gunpowder sent from the States in exchange, even if a preference of eighty-five per cent. had been given them over the people of Canada? It is safe to say that no such interpretation of the Constitution, or of the rights of the people of a Territory, will ever be offered to men of American descent.

If the Constitution, so far as it is applicable, attaches itself, whether Congress will or no, to all territory taken over as a part of the permanent territory of the United States, it is there to stay as fundamental law. But if it is not so, an act of Congress declaring that the Constitution is "extended" is not fundamental law, but statute law, and may be repealed; and is repealed by implication, *pro tanto*, whenever Congress passes a law in conflict with the provisions of the "extended" Constitution. If the Constitution as such, as fundamental law, is extended over new territory, it must be the result of an act done—an act the effect of which is in itself, not in any accompanying declaration.

If the act of annexation does not carry the Constitution into a Territory, I can think of nothing that will, save the act of admitting the Territory as a State.

The situation of the Porto Rican people is scarcely less mortifying to us than to them; they owe allegiance but have no citizenship. Have we not spoiled our career as a delivering nation? And for what? A gentleman connected with the beet-sugar industry, seeing my objections to the constitutionality of the law, and having a friendly purpose to help me over them, wrote to say that the duty was absolutely needed to protect the beet-sugar industry. While appreciating his friendliness, I felt compelled to say to him that there was a time for considering the advantages and disadvantages of a commercial sort involved in taking over Porto Rico, but that that time had passed, and to intimate to him that the needs of the beet-sugar industry seemed to me to be irrelevant in a constitutional discussion.

The wise man did not say there was a future time for everything; he allowed that the time for dancing might be altogether behind us, and a less pleasant exercise before us. We are hardly likely to acquire any territory that will not come at some cost.

That we give back to Porto Rico all of the revenue derived from the customs we levy does not seem to me to soften our dealings with her people. Our fathers were not mollified by the suggestion that the tea and stamp taxes would be expended wholly for the benefit of the colonies. It is to say: "We do not need this money; it is only levied to show that your country is no part of the United States, and that you are not citizens of the United States, save at our pleasure." When tribute is levied and immediately returned as a benefaction, its only purpose is to declare and maintain a state of vassalage.

But I am not sure that the beet-sugar objection is not more tenable than another, and probably more controlling consideration, which ran in this wise: "We see no serious commercial disadvantages, and no threat of disorder, in accepting Porto Rico to be a part of the United States—in that case it seems to be our duty; but we have acquired other islands in the Orient, of large area, populated by a turbulent and rebellious people; and, if we do by the

Porto Ricans what our sense of justice and of their friendliness prompts us to do, some illogical person will say that we must deal in the same way with the Philippines. And some other person will say that the free intercourse was not given by the law but by the Constitution."

I will not give a license to a friend to cut a tree upon my land to feed his winter fire, because my enemy may find in the license a support for his claim that the wood is a common!

If we have confidence that the Constitution does not apply to the Territories, surely we ought to use our absolute power there with a view to the circumstances attending each call for its exercise. Not to do this shows a misgiving as to the power.

The questions raised by the Porto Rican legislation have been discussed chiefly from the stand-point of the people of the Territories; but there is another view. If, in its tariff legislation relative to merchandise imported into the Territories and to merchandise passed from the Territories into the States, Congress is not subject to the law of uniformity prescribed by the Constitution, it would seem to follow that it is within the power of Congress to allow the admission to Porto Rico of all raw materials coming from other countries free of duty, and to admit to all ports of the "United States proper," free of duty, the products manufactured from these raw materials. As the people of the "United States proper" choose the Congressmen, there may be no great alarm felt over this possibility; but it is worth while to note that a construction of the Constitution adopted to save us from a competition with the Territories on equal grounds is capable of being turned against us and to their advantage.

The courts may not refuse to give to the explicit words of a law their natural meaning, by reason of the ill consequences that may follow; but they may well take account of consequences in construing doubtful phrases, and resolve the doubts so as to save the purpose of the lawmakers, where, as in the case of the constitutional provision we are considering, that purpose is well known. They will not construe a doubtful phrase so as to allow the very thing that the law was intended to prevent.

These constitutional questions will soon be decided by the Supreme Court. If the absolute power of Congress is affirmed, we shall probably use the power with discrimination by "extending" the Constitution to Porto Rico, and by giving to its people a full territorial form of government, and such protection in their civil rights as an act of Congress can give. If the court shall hold that the Constitution, in the parts not in themselves inapplicable, covers all territory made a permanent part of our domain, from the moment of annexation and as a necessary part of the United States, then we will conform our legislation, with deep regret that we assumed a construction contrary to liberty, and with some serious embarrassments that might have been avoided.

There has been with many a mistaken apprehension that, if the Constitution, of its own force, extends to Porto Rico and the Philippines, and gives American citizenship to their free civilized people, they become endowed with full political rights; that their consent is necessary to the validity and rightfulness of all civil administrations. But no such deduction follows. The power of Congress to legislate for the Territories is full. That is, there is no legislative power elsewhere than in Congress, but it is not absolute. The contention is that all the powers of Congress are derived from the Constitution—including the power to legislate for the Territories—and that such legislation must necessarily, always and everywhere, be subject to the limitations of the Constitution.

When this rule is observed, the consent of the people of the Territories is not necessary to the validity of the legislation. The new Territory having become a part of the national domain, the people dwelling therein have no reserved legal right to sever that relation, or to set up therein a hostile government. The question whether the United States can take over or continue to hold and govern a Territory whose people are hostile, is not a question of constitutional or international law, but of conscience and historical consistency.

Some one must determine when and how far the people of a Territory, part of our national domain, can be entrusted with governing powers of a local nature, and when the broader powers of statehood

shall be conferred. We have no right to judge the capacity for self-government of the people of another nation, or to make an alleged lack of that faculty an excuse for aggression; but we must judge of this matter for our Territories. The interests to be affected by the decision are not all local; many of them are national.

These questions are to be judged liberally and with strong leanings to the side of popular liberty, but we cannot give over the decision to the people who may at any particular time be settled in a Territory. We have, for the most part, in our history given promptly to the people of the Territories a large measure of local government, and have, when the admission of a State was proposed, thought only of boundaries and population. But this was because our Territories have been contiguous and chiefly populated from the States.

We are not only at liberty, however, but under a duty, to take account also of the quality and disposition of the people, and we have in one or two instances done so. The written Constitution prescribes no rule for these cases. The question whether the United States shall hold conquered territory, or territory acquired by cession, without the consent of the people to be affected, is quite apart from the question whether, having acquired and incorporated such territory, we can govern it otherwise than under the limitations of the Constitution.

The Constitution may be aided in things doubtful by the Declaration of Independence. It may be assumed that the frame of civil government adopted was intended to harmonize with the Declaration. It is the preamble of the Constitution. It goes before the enacting clause and declares the purpose of the law; but the purpose so expressed is not the law unless it finds renewed expression after the enacting clause. We shall be plainly recreant to the spirit and purpose of the Constitution if we arbitrarily deny to the people of a Territory as large a measure of popular government as their good disposition and intelligence will warrant. Necessarily, the judgment of this question, however, is with Congress. The Constitution prescribes no rule—could not do so—and the courts cannot review the discretion of Congress.

But we are now having it dinned into our ears that expansion is the law of life, and that expansion is not practicable if the Constitution is to go with the flag. Lord Salisbury, some years ago, stated this supposed law of national life. In a recent address, Mr. James Bryce says, by way of comment:

"He thinks it like a bicycle, which must fall when it comes to a stand-still. It is an awkward result of this doctrine that when there is no more room for expansion—and a time must come, perhaps soon, when there will be no more room—the Empire will begin to decline."

If Great Britain, with her accepted methods of territorial growth, finds the problem of growth by expansion increasingly hard, it will be harder for us, for we are fettered by our traditions as to popular rights, at least—if not by our Constitution.

But expansion is not necessarily of a healthy sort; it may be dropsical. If judgment is passed now, the attempted conquest of the Boer republics has not strengthened Great Britain. She has not gained esteem. She has not increased her loyal population. She has created a need for more outlying garrisons—already too numerous. She has strained her military and financial resources, and has had a revelation of the need of larger armies and stronger coast defences at home. The recent appeal of Lord Salisbury at the Lord Mayor's banquet for more complete island defences is most significant. Did the South African war furnish a truer measure of the Empire's land strength than the familiar campaigning against half-savage peoples had done? The old coach, with its power to stand as well as to move, may, after all, be a safer carriage, for the hopes and interests of a great people, than the bicycle.

Some one will say, increasing years and retirement and introspection have broken your touch with practical affairs and left you out of sympathy with the glowing prospects of territorial expansion that now opens before us; that it has always been so; the Louisiana and the Alaskan purchases were opposed by some fearful souls. But I have been making no argument against expansion. The recent acquisitions from Spain must present widely dif-

ferent conditions from all previous acquisitions of territory, since it seems to be admitted that they cannot be allowed to become a part of the United States without a loss that overbalances the gain; that we can only safely acquire them upon the condition that we can govern them without any constitutional restraint.

One who has retired from the service, but not from the love of his country, must be pardoned if he finds himself unable to rejoice in the acquisition of lands and forests and mines and commerce, at the cost of the abandonment of the old American idea that a government of absolute powers is an intolerable thing, and, under the Constitution of the United States, an impossible thing. The view of the Constitution I have suggested will not limit the power of territorial expansion; but it will lead us to limit the use of that power to regions that may safely become a part of the United States, and to peoples whose American citizenship may be allowed. It has been said that the flash of Dewey's guns in Manila Bay revealed to the American people a new mission. I like rather to think of them as revealing the same old mission that we read in the flash of Washington's guns at Yorktown.

God forbid that the day should ever come when, in the American mind, the thought of man as a "consumer" shall submerge the old American thought of man as a creature of God, endowed with "inalienable rights."

Anthon, CHARLES, scholar and educator; born in New York, Nov. 19, 1797. His father, a surgeon-general in the British army, settled in New York soon after the Revolution. Charles graduated at Columbia College in 1815, was admitted to the bar, and in 1820 was made professor of languages in his *alma mater*. Professor Anthon was the author of many books connected with classical studies. He was made the head of the classical department of the college as successor of Professor Moore in 1835, having served as rector of the grammar-school of the college for five years. Professor Anthon was very methodical in his habits. He retired at ten o'clock and rose at four, and performed much of his appointed day's work before breakfast. By industry he produced about fifty volumes, consisting chiefly of the Latin classics and aids to classical study. All of his works were republished in England. His larger works are a *Classical Dictionary* and a *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*. When he was made rector of the grammar-school he conferred on the public schools of his native city six free scholarships. He died in New York, July 29, 1867.

Anthony, HENRY BOWEN, statesman; born in Coventry, R. I., April 1, 1815; graduated at Brown University in 1833; editor of the Providence *Journal*, 1838–63; elected governor of Rhode Island in 1849 and in 1850; United States Senator from Rhode Island, 1859–84; thrice elected president *pro tem.* of the Senate. He died in Providence, R. I., Sept. 2, 1884.

Anthony, SUSAN BROWNELL, American reformer; born in South Adams, Mass., Feb. 15, 1820. She was of Quaker parentage, and received her education at a Friends' school in Philadelphia. From 1835 to 1850 she taught school in New York. In 1847 she began her efforts in behalf of the temperance movement; in 1852 she assisted in organizing the Woman's New York State Temperance Society. In 1854–55 she held meetings in behalf of female suffrage. She was a leader in the anti-slavery movement, and an early advocate of the coeducation of women. Greatly through her influence, the New York legislature, in 1860, passed the act giving married women the possession of their earnings and the guardianship of their children. In 1868, with Mrs. E. C. Stanton and Parker Pillsbury, she began the publication of the *Revolutionist*, a paper devoted to the emancipation of women. In 1872 she cast test ballots at the State and congressional elections in Rochester, N. Y., and was indicted and fined for illegal voting, but the fine was never exacted.

Antietam, BATTLE OF. After the surrender of Harper's Ferry, Sept. 15, 1862, Lee felt himself in a perilous position, for General Franklin had entered Pleasant Valley that very morning and threatened the severance of his army. Lee at once took measures to concentrate his forces. He withdrew his troops from South Mountain and took position in the Antietam valley, near Sharpsburg, Md. Jackson, by

swift marches, had recrossed the Potomac and joined Lee on Antietam Creek. When the Confederates left South Mountain, McClellan's troops followed them. Lee's plans were thwarted, and he found himself compelled to fight. McClellan was very cautious, for he believed the Confederates were on his front in overwhelming numbers. It was ascertained that Lee's army did not number more than 60,000. McClellan's effective force was 87,000. McClellan's army was well in hand (Sept. 16), and Lee's was well posted on the heights near Sharpsburg, on the western side of Antietam Creek, a sluggish stream with few fords, spanned by four stone bridges. On the right of the National line were the corps of Hooker and Sumner. In the advance, and near the Antietam, General Richardson's division of Sumner's corps was posted. On a line with this was Sykes's (regular) division of Porter's corps. Farther down the stream was Burnside's corps. In front of Sumner and Hooker were batteries of 24-pounder Parrott guns. Franklin's corps and Couch's division were farther down the valley, and the divisions of Morrell and Humphrey, of Porter's corps, were approaching from Frederick. A detachment of the signal corps, under Major Myer, was on a spur of South Mountain.

As McClellan prudently hesitated to attack, the Confederates put him on the defensive by opening an artillery fire upon the Nationals at dawn (Sept. 16, 1862). He was ready for response in the course of the afternoon, when Hooker crossed the Antietam with a part of his corps, commanded by Generals Ricketts, Meade, and Doubleday. Hooker at once attacked the Confederate left, commanded by "Stonewall Jackson," who was soon reinforced by General Hood. Sumner was directed to send over Mansfield's corps during the night, and to hold his own in readiness to pass over the next morning. Hooker's first movement was successful. He drove back the Confederates, and his army rested on their arms that night on the ground they had won. Mansfield's corps crossed in the evening, and at dawn (Sept. 17) the contest was renewed by Hooker. It was obstinate and severe. The National batteries on the east side of the creek greatly assisted in driving the Confederates away, with heavy loss, beyond a line of woods. It was at this time, when Hooker advanced, that Jackson was reinforced. The Confederates swarmed out of the works and fell heavily upon Meade, when Hooker called upon Doubleday for help. A brigade under General Hartsuff pressed forward against a heavy storm of missiles, and its leader was severely wounded. Meanwhile Mansfield's corps had been ordered up, and before it became engaged the veteran leader was mortally wounded. The command then devolved on General Williams, who left his division in the care of General Crawford, and the latter seized a piece of woods near by. Hooker had lost heavily; Doubleday's guns had silenced a Confederate battery; Ricketts was struggling against constantly increasing numbers on his front; and the National line began to waver, when Hooker, in the van, was wounded and taken from the field. Sumner sent Sedgwick to the support of Crawford, and Gordon and Richardson and French bore down upon the Confederates more to the left.

The Nationals now held position at the Dunker Church, and seemed about to grasp the palm of victory (for Jackson and Hood were falling back), when fresh Confederate troops, under McLaws and Walker, supported by Early, came up. They penetrated the National line and drove it back, when the unflinching Doubleday gave them such a storm of artillery that they, in turn, fell back to their original position. Sedgwick, twice wounded, was carried from the field, and the command of his division devolved on Gen. O. O. Howard. Generals Crawford and Dana were also wounded. Franklin was sent over to assist the hard-pressed Nationals. Forming on Howard's left, he sent Slocum with his division towards the centre. At the same time General Smith was ordered to retake the ground on which there had been so much fighting, and it was done within fifteen minutes. The Confederates were driven far back. Meanwhile the divisions of French and Richardson had been busy. The former received orders from Sumner to press on and make a diversion in favor of the right. Richardson's division, composed of the brigades of Meagher, Caldwell, and Brooks (who had crossed the Antietam at ten o'clock), gained a good

position. The Confederates, reinforced by fresh troops, fought desperately. Finally, Richardson was mortally wounded, and Gen. W. S. Hancock succeeded him in command, when a charge was made that drove the Confederates in great confusion. Night soon closed the action on the National right and centre. General Meagher had been wounded and carried from the field, when the command of his troops devolved on Colonel Burke. During the fierce strifes of the day Porter's corps, with artillery and Pleasonton's cavalry, had remained on the east side of the stream, as a reserve, until late in the afternoon, when McClellan sent over some brigades.

On the morning of the 17th the left, under Burnside, engaged in a desperate struggle for the possession of a bridge just below Sharpsburg. That commander had been ordered to cross it and attack the Confederates. It was a difficult task, and Burnside, exposed to a raking fire from the Confederate batteries and an enfilading fire from sharpshooters, was several times repulsed. Finally, at a little past noon, two regiments charged across the bridge and drove its defenders away. The divisions of Sturgis, Wilcox, and Rodman, and Scammon's brigade, with four batteries, passed the bridge and drove the Confederates almost to Sharpsburg. A. P. Hill, with fresh troops, fell upon Burnside's left, mortally wounding General Rodman, and driving the Nationals nearly back to the bridge. Gen. O'B. Branch, of North Carolina, was also killed in this encounter. The Confederates were checked by National artillery on the eastern side of the stream, and, reserves advancing under Sturgis, there was no further attempt to retake "the Burnside Bridge," as it was called. Hill came up just in time to save Lee's army from destruction.

Darkness ended the memorable struggle known as the Battle of Antietam. The losses were very severe. McClellan reported his losses at 12,460 men, of whom 2,010 were killed. He estimated Lee's loss as much greater. The losses fell heavily upon certain brigades. That of Duryée retired from the field with not more than twenty men and four colors. Of the brigades of Lawton and Hays, on the Confederate side, more than one-half were lost. On the morning of the 18th both parties seemed more willing to rest than to fight; and that night Lee and his

"BURNSIDE BRIDGE," ANTIETAM CREEK.

shattered army stole away in the darkness, recrossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and planted eight batteries on the high Virginia bank that menaced pursuers. There had been a very tardy pursuit. At dark on the evening of the 19th, Porter, who was on the left bank of the river, ordered Griffin to cross the stream with two brigades and carry Lee's batteries. He captured four of the guns. On the next morning (Sept. 20) a part of Porter's division made a reconnoissance in force on the Virginia side, and were assailed by Hill in ambush, who drove them across the Potomac and captured 200 of the Nationals. Maryland Heights and Harper's Ferry were retaken by the Union troops.

Anti-Expansionists, an old phrase in American political history which was resurrected during the Presidential campaign of 1900, and applied to those who

were opposed to the extension of American territory which had been brought about during the first administration of President McKinley, principally as a result of the war with Spain in 1898. The administration was charged not only by its Democratic opponents, but by many able men in the Republican party, with expansionist or imperialist tendencies considered foreign to the national policy of the country. While those who opposed the territorial expansion which had been accomplished, and also was pending, in the matter of the future of the Philippine Islands, were not sufficiently strong to organize an independent political party, the large number of them within and without the Republican party created a sharp complication in the Presidential campaign. The position of the two great parties on this issue is shown in the following extracts from the platforms adopted at their respective national conventions.

In the Republican platform the Philippine problem was treated as follows:

"In accepting by the treaty of Paris the just responsibility of our victories in the Spanish War, the President and the Senate won the undoubted approval of the American people. No other course was possible than to destroy Spain's sovereignty throughout the Western Indies and in the Philippine Islands. That course created our responsibility before the world, and with the unorganized population whom our intervention had freed from Spain, to provide for the maintenance of law and order, and for the establishment of good government and for the performance of international obligations. Our authority could not be less than our responsibility, and wherever sovereign rights were extended, it became the high duty of the government to maintain its authority, to put down armed insurrection, and to confer the blessings of liberty and civilization upon all the rescued peoples. The largest measure of self-government consistent with their welfare and our duties shall be secured to them by law."

The Democratic platform contained two declarations on the subject, the first favoring a qualified expansion as follows:

"We are not opposed to territorial expansion when it takes in desirable territory which can be erected into States in the Union, and whose people are willing and fit to become American citizens. We favor expansion by every peaceful and legitimate means. But we are unalterably opposed to the seizing or purchasing of distant islands, to be governed outside the Constitution, and whose people can never become citizens. We are in favor of extending the Republic's influence among the nations, but believe that influence should be extended, not by force and violence, but through the persuasive power of a high and honorable example. The importance of other questions now pending before the American people is in nowise diminished, and the Democratic party takes no backward step from its position on them, but the burning issue of imperialism growing out of the Spanish War involves the very existence of the republic, and the destruction of our free institutions. We regard it as the paramount issue of the campaign."

In the matter of the Philippine problem, the platform made the following declaration:

"We condemn and denounce the Philippine policy of the present administration. It has involved the republic in unnecessary war, sacrificed the lives of many of our noblest sons, and placed the United States, previously known and applauded throughout the world as the champion of freedom, in the false and un-American position of crushing with military force the efforts of our former allies to achieve liberty and self-government. The Filipinos cannot be citizens without endangering our civilization; they cannot be subjects without imperilling our form of government, and as we are not willing to surrender our civilization or to convert the republic into an empire, we favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to give to the Filipinos, first, a stable form of government; secondly, independence; and third, protection from outside interference, such as has been given for nearly a century to the republics of Central and South America. The greedy commercialism which dictated the Philippine policy of the Republican administration attempts to justify it with the plea that it will pay, but even this sordid and unworthy plea fails when brought to the test of facts. The war of criminal aggres-

sion against the Filipinos, entailing an annual expense of many millions, has already cost more than any possible profit that could accrue from the entire Philippine trade for years to come. Furthermore, when trade is extended at the expense of liberty, the price is always too high." See also ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY; ANNEXED TERRITORY, STATUS OF; ATKINSON, EDWARD; BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS; IMPERIALISM.

Anti-Federal Party. At the close of the war for independence the mass of the population was agricultural and democratic, and devoted to the advancement of their separate commonwealths, the legislatures of which, under the Articles of Confederation (see CONFEDERATION, ARTICLES OF), had seized upon the powers which the King had abandoned, and which the national popular will was not yet sufficiently educated to assume. In the years from 1780 to 1787, in spite of lawlessness and bad government, great development had taken place in the United States. The commercial and creditor classes, and the Southern property owners, who had learned their weaknesses and their needs, united for the control of the convention, in 1787, under the leadership of Hamilton, and a few other of the advanced thinkers, and formed the nucleus of what was soon to be called the Federal party. As the old government had been strictly federal, or league, in its nature, it would seem natural that its supporters should be called federalist, and Gerry, of Massachusetts, and a few others made some effort to secure this party title, and give their opponents that of anti-federalists or nationalists. But the object of the Constitution was to secure a strong federal government; and all who were opposed to this new feature of American politics at once accepted the name of Anti-Federalists, and opposed the ratification of the Constitution, inside and outside of the conventions. In Rhode Island and North Carolina this opposition was for a time successful, but in all the other States it was overcome, though in Pennsylvania there were strong protests of unfair treatment on the part of the Federalists. Many prominent men, such as Edmund Randolph, Robert R. Livingston, Madison, and Jefferson, while opposed by nature to a strong federal government, saw in the adoption of the Constitution the only salvation for the young Republic, and voted with the Federalists in this contest; but, after the Constitution had been adopted, it was natural that these men should aim at a construction of its terms which should not give the new government extensive power. These temporary Federalists, in about 1791–93, united with the old Anti-Federalists, and the party that had absolutely opposed the Constitution, through fear of a strong central government, now became, through the same fear, the champions of the exact and literal language of the Constitution, and the opponents of every attempt to extend its meaning by ingenious interpretations of its terms. The former party name was no longer applicable, and in 1792, through the influence of Jefferson, it began to be called a "Republican" party, in opposition to the "Monarchical" Federalists. It soon adopted this name, in 1793, which was afterwards lengthened into the Democratic-Republican party. See DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

Anti-Masonic Party. In 1826 William Morgan, a citizen of western New York, announced his intention to publish a book in which the secrets of freemasonry were to be disclosed. It was printed at Batavia, N. Y. On Sept. 11 Morgan was seized at Batavia, upon a criminal charge, by a company of men who came from Canandaigua. He was taken to that place, tried and acquitted on the criminal charge, but was immediately arrested on a civil process for a trifling debt. He was cast into jail there, and the next night was discharged by those who procured his arrest, taken from prison at nine o'clock at night, and at the door was seized and thrust into a carriage in waiting, which was driven rapidly towards Rochester. He was taken by relays of horses, by the agency of several individuals, to Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River, and deposited in the powder magazine there. It was known that the freemasons had made violent attempts to suppress Morgan's announced book, and this outrage was charged upon the fraternity. A committee was appointed, at a public meeting held at Batavia, to endeavor to ferret out the perpetrators of the outrage. They found evidences of the existence of what they believed to be

STONE IDOL AT COPAN, 13 FEET IN HEIGHT.

an extended conspiracy, with many agents and powerful motives. Similar meetings were held elsewhere. Public excitement became very great and wide-spread; and a strong feeling soon pervaded the public mind that the masonic institution was responsible for the crime. The profound mystery in which the affair was involved gave wings to a thousand absurd rumors. Mutual criminations and recriminations became very violent, and entered into all the religious, social, and political relations.

A very strong anti-masonic party was soon created, at first only social in its character, but soon it became political. This feature of the party first appeared at town-meetings in the spring of 1827, where it was resolved that no mason was worthy to receive the votes of freemen. A political party for the exclusion of masons from public offices was soon spread over the State of New York and into several other States, and ran its course for several years. In 1832 a National Anti-Masonic Convention was held at Philadelphia, in which several States were represented, and William Wirt, of Virginia, was nominated for the office of President of the United States. Although the party polled a considerable vote, it soon afterwards disappeared. The fate of Morgan after he reached the magazine at Fort Niagara was never positively revealed.

Anti-Mission Baptists, variously known as Primitive, Old School, and Regular Baptists; called Anti-Mission Baptists because of their opposition, begun about 1840, to the establishment of Sunday-schools, missions, colleges, or theological schools. They hold that these institutions make the salvation of men dependent upon human effort rather than upon Divine grace. In 1899 they reported 2,130 ministers, 3,530 churches, and 126,000 members.

Anti-Poverty Society. See GEORGE, HENRY; SINGLE TAX.

Antiquities, AMERICAN. A greater portion of objects which constitute American antiquities consist of the architectural and other remains of the handiwork of the aborigines who inhabited the continent before any of the present races appeared here and subjugated or displaced them; also the ruins occasioned by the Spanish

conquest. These are chiefly, in Central and South America, ruined temples, and, in North America, rude earthworks, now overgrown with venerable forest trees which attest their antiquity. In connection with those in the more southern regions, there are remains of elaborate carvings and ornamental pottery. There are many features in common between the temples and other works of art in Mexico, Central America, and Peru. The explorations of Stephens and Catherwood (1840–43) revealed to the world vast remains of cities in Central America, which were doubtless inhabited at the period of the conquest, 350 years ago. There they found carved monoliths and the remains of highly ornamented temples. The monoliths at Copan some antiquaries are disposed to rank, as to use, with those ruder ones at Stonehenge, in England, and older ones in Arabia. The remains of Aztec art in Mexico attest the existence of a high degree of civilization there at the period of their structure. So, also, the ruins of the Temple of the Sun, at Cuzco, in Peru, tell of great advancement in the arts under the empire of the Incas. These remains occupy a living place on the borders of the historic period, but the mounds in North America, showing much mathematical skill in their construction and ingenuity in their contents, have hitherto eluded the keen skill of antiquaries, who have sought in vain among prehistoric mysteries for a clew to the origin of the people who made them. See Hui Shen; Mound-Builders.

Anti-Rent Party. The greater part of Columbia, Rensselaer, Greene, Delaware, and Albany counties in the State of New York belonged to manors, the grants of which had been made to "patroons" by the Dutch West India Company, and renewed by James II., the principal ones being Rensselaerswyck and Livingston Manor. The tenants had deeds for their farms, but paid an annual rental instead of a principal sum. Dissatisfaction with this state of affairs had begun to show itself as early as 1790, and when, in 1839, Stephen Van Rensselaer, who had allowed much of his rent to remain in arrears, died, the tenants refused to pay rents to his successor, disguised themselves as "Injuns," and for ten years carried on a reign of terror that practically suspended the operation of law and the payment of rent in the entire district. The attempt to serve process by military aid, the so-called Helderberg War, was unsuccessful. In 1847 and 1849 the anti-renters showed a voting strength of 5,000, adopting a part of each party ticket. In 1850 the legislature directed the attorney-general to bring suit against Harmon Livingston to try title. The suit was decided in Livingston's favor, November, 1850, but a compromise was effected, the owners selling the farms at fair rates, and the tenants paying for them. Most of Rensselaerswyck was sold, and of Livingston Manor, which at one time contained 162,000 acres of choice farms, only a small portion now remains in the possession of the family.

Anti-Slavery Party. See Free-soil Party; Republican Party.

Anti-Slavery Society, American, an organization founded in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1833, by delegates from several State and city societies in the Northern and Eastern States, the first local one having been established in Boston, Jan. 16, 1832, under the leadership of William Lloyd Garrison. The presidents of the national society were Arthur Tappan, Lindley Coates, William Lloyd Garrison, and Wendell Phillips, and in its membership were the leading abolitionists of the day. The members, individually, were subjected for many years to mob violence, and the feeling in the South against the society was exceedingly bitter. The members heroically kept together, in spite of persecution and personal assault, till April 9, 1870, when, on the adoption of the Thirteenth Amendment to the national Constitution, the main society was disbanded. See Colonization Society, American; Liberia.

Apache Indians, a branch of the Athabascan stock. They are mostly wanderers, and have roamed as marauders over portions of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, in the United States, and several of the northern provinces of Mexico. Wanderers, they do not cultivate the soil, and have only temporary chiefs to lead them. Civil government they have none. Divided into many roving bands, they resisted all attempts by the Spanish to civilize and Christianize them, but constant-

ly attacked these Europeans. So early as 1762, it was estimated that the Apaches had desolated and depopulated 174 mining towns, stations, and missions in the province of Sonora alone. For fifty years a bold chief—Mangas Colorado—led powerful bands to war; and since the annexation of their territory to the United States, they have given its government more trouble than any of the Western Indians. Colorado was killed in 1863. Though fierce in war, they never scalp or torture their enemies. A Great Spirit is the central figure in their simple system of theology, and they reverence as sacred certain animals, especially a pure white bird. In 1900 the members of the tribe in the United States were classified as Coyotera, Jicarilla, Mescalero, San Carlos, Tonto, and White Mountain Apaches, and were located in Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. They numbered 6,113.

Apalache, Apalacha, Apalachi, or **Appalachee,** various forms of the name of a tribe of North American Indians who dwelt in the vicinity of St. Mark's River, Florida, with branches extending northward to the Appalachian range. They were known, historically, as far back as 1526. The settlements of the tribe were mentioned in a petition to King Charles II., of Spain, in 1688, and it is believed that the tribe became broken up and scattered about 1702, the members becoming absorbed in other tribes.

Apia, the principal town and commercial port of the Samoan Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean, situated on the north coast of the island of Upolu. The harbor is small, but, ordinarily, a safe one. In March, 1889, the island and harbor were swept by a terrific hurricane, which wrecked the United States ships *Trenton* (flag-ship) and *Vandalia*, and the German men-of-war *Eber*, *Adler*, and *Olga*, and drove ashore the United States steamer *Nipsic*. The *Calliope* (British) was the only man-of-war in the harbor that succeeded in escaping to sea. The town and its vicinity were the scene, in 1899, of a series of fatal riots, growing out of the claims of Mataafa and Malietoa. Tanus to the kingship. Several American and British naval officers were killed or wounded, April 1, in subduing the native mob.

Appleton, NATHAN and SAMUEL, merchants and philanthropists; brothers; born in New Ipswich, N. H., in 1779 and 1766 respectively; engaged in the cotton manufacturing business, as partners; were founders of the city of Lowell, Mass., which grew up around their many mills. Both were widely known for their benevolence. Nathan set up the first power loom in the United States, in his Waltham mill. Nathan died in 1861; Samuel, in 1853.

Appomattox Court-House, the seat of government of Appomattox county, Va., about 25 miles east of Lynchburg; famous as the scene of the surrender of General Lee to General Grant. The Army of Northern Virginia was reduced by famine, disease, death, wounds, and capture to a feeble few. These struggled against

M'LEAN'S HOUSE, THE PLACE OF LEE'S SURRENDER.

enormous odds with almost unexampled fortitude, but were compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and strength. On April 8, a portion of Sheridan's cavalry, under General Custer, supported by Devine, captured four Confederate supply-trains at Appomattox Station, on the Lynchburg Railroad. Lee's vanguard approaching, were pushed back to Appomattox Court-House, 5 miles northward—near which was Lee's main army—losing twenty-five guns and many wagons and prisoners. Sheridan hurried forward the remainder of his command, and on that evening he stood directly across Lee's pathway of retreat. Lee's last avenue of escape was closed, and on the following day he met General Grant at the residence of Wilmer McLean, at Appomattox Court-House, to consummate an act of surrender. The two commanders met, with courteous recognition, at 2 P.M., on Palm Sunday (April 9). Grant was accompanied by his chief of staff, Colonel Parker; Lee was attended by Colonel Marshall, his adjutant-general.

The terms of surrender were discussed and settled, in the form of a written proposition by Grant, and a written acceptance by Lee, and at 3.30 P.M. they were signed. The terms prescribed by Grant were extraordinary, under the circumstances, in their leniency and magnanimity, and Lee was much touched by them. They simply required Lee and his men to give their parole of honor that they would not take up arms against the government of the United States until regularly exchanged; gave to the officers their side-arms, baggage, and private horses; and pledged the faith of the government that they should not be punished for their treason and rebellion so long as they should respect that parole and be obedient to law. Grant, at the suggestion of Lee, agreed to allow such cavalrymen of the Confederate army as owned their own horses to retain them, as they would, he said, need them for tilling their farms. Lee now returned to Richmond, where his family resided. He had started on that campaign with 65,000 men, and he returned alone; and for a month afterwards he and his family were kindly furnished with daily rations from the national commissariat at Richmond. Lee had lost, during the movements of his army from March 26 to April 9, about 14,000 men killed and wounded, and 25,000 made prisoners. The number of men paroled was about 26,000, of whom not more than 9,000 had arms in their hands. About 16,000 small-arms were surrendered, 150 cannon, 71 colors, about 1,100 wagons and caissons, and 4,000 horses and mules. See LEE, ROBERT EDWARD.

Apportionment, CONGRESSIONAL, the popular name of a bill enacted by Congress after every enumeration of the inhabitants of the republic or the decennial census, determining the total number of members to be sent to the House of Representatives from each State of the Union. The ratio of representation, since the foundation of the government, has been as follows:

From	1789	to	1793	as provided by the United States Constitution				....	30,000
"	1793	"	1803	based on the United States Census of				1790	33,000
"	1803	"	1813	"	"	"	"	1800	33,000
"	1813	"	1823	"	"	"	"	1810	35,000
"	1823	"	1833	"	"	"	"	1820	40,000
"	1833	"	1843	"	"	"	"	1830	47,700
"	1843	"	1853	"	"	"	"	1840	70,680
"	1853	"	1863	"	"	"	"	1850	93,423
"	1863	"	1873	"	"	"	"	1860	127,381
"	1873	"	1883	"	"	"	"	1870	131,425
"	1883	"	1893	"	"	"	"	1880	151,911
"	1893	"	1903	"	"	"	"	1890	173,901
"	1903	"	1913	"	"	"	"	1900	194,182

Appropriations by Congress. The Congress of the United States makes appropriations for the expenses of the government for each fiscal year ending June 30. The following is a list of the different objects for which the appropriations are made:

Deficiencies.	Forts and fortifications.
Legislative, executive, and judicial.	Military Academy.
Sundry civil.	Post-office Department.
Army.	Pensions.
Navy.	Consular and Diplomatic.
Indian.	Agricultural Department.
River and harbor.	District of Columbia.
	Miscellaneous.

The accompanying table will show that the total amount of appropriation increases with each Congress.

APPROPRIATIONS BY CONGRESS, 1897–1904.

	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904
Deficiencies	$13,900,106	$8,594,447	$347,165,001	$46,882,724	$13,767,008	$13,289,314	$24,944,124	$19,651,968
Legislative, Executive, and Judicial	21,519,751	21,690,766	21,625,846	23,394,051	24,175,652	24,594,968	25,396,683	27,598,653
Sundry Civil	29,819,113	34,344,970	33,997,752	39,381,733	49,594,309	54,574,285	54,394,601	61,763,709
Support of the Army	23,278,403	23,129,344	23,193,392	80,430,204	114,220,095	115,734,049	91,730,136	77,888,752
Naval Service	30,562,661	33,003,234	56,098,783	48,099,969	61,140,916	78,101,791	78,856,263	81,876,791
Indian Service	7,390,497	7,674,120	7,673,854	7,504,775	8,197,989	9,747,471	8,986,028	8,540,406
Rivers and Harbors	15,944,147	19,266,412	14,492,459	25,100,038	16,175,605	7,046,623	32,540,199	20,228,150
Forts and Fortifications	7,377,888	9,517,141	9,377,494	4,909,909	7,383,628	7,364,011	7,298,955	7,188,416
Military Academy	449,562	479,572	458,689	575,774	674,306	772,653	2,622,324	652,748
Post-Office Department	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.	Indefinite.
Pensions	141,328,580	141,263,880	141,233,830	145,233,830	145,245,230	145,245,230	139,842,230	139,847,600
Consular and Diplomatic	1,643,559	1,695,308	1,752,208	1,714,533	1,771,168	1,849,428	1,987,483	1,968,250
Agricultural Department	3,255,532	3,182,902	3,509,202	3,726,022	4,023,500	4,582,420	5,208,960	5,978,160
District of Columbia	5,900,319	6,186,991	6,426,880	6,834,535	7,577,369	8,502,269	8,544,469	8,638,097
Miscellaneous	423,304	1,150,464	6,044,898	28,721,653	3,205,362	7,961,140	4,081,747	3,025,064
Totals	$302,786,386	$311,179,557	$673,050,293	$462,509,750	$457,152,142	$479,365,657	$486,439,306	$464,846,770

Aqueducts. Artificial channels or conduits for conveying water, especially for supplying large cities. The Greeks and Romans constructed enormous works of this kind, some of which are still in existence after continuous use of over 2,000 years. The best preserved Greek aqueduct is the one still in use at Syracuse. The most famous Roman aqueducts were the Aqua Apia, 10 miles in length; the Aqua Martia, 60 miles; the Aqua Julia, 15 miles, and the Aqua Claudia, 46 miles. With the exception of the Claudia, all these were constructed before the birth of Christ. Among the most important aqueducts in the United States are the following: The old Croton, New York City, built 1837–42, length, 38¼ miles, capacity, 100 million gallons daily. The new Croton, built 1884–90, length 30½ miles, capacity, 250 million gallons daily. Washington Aqueduct, built 1852–59, two 4-foot pipes. Boston, from Sudbury River, built 1875–78, length, 16 miles. Baltimore, from Gunpowder River, built 1875–81, length, 7 miles. The Sutro tunnel, 4 miles long, constructed to drain the Comstock Lode, Nevada, at a depth of 1,600 feet. It was chartered February 4, 1865, and completed June 30, 1879. Many important works for the purpose of irrigation are now under construction in the Western States of the Union.

Aquia Creek, Engagement at. Alarmed by the gathering of troops at Washington, Governor Letcher, of Virginia, by command of the Confederate government, called out the militia of that State, appointing no fewer than twenty places as points of rendezvous, one-fourth of which were west of the mountains, for the Confederates were threatened by Ohio and Indiana volunteers. His proclamation was issued May 3, 1861. Batteries were erected on the Virginia branch of the Potomac, below Washington, for the purpose of obstructing the navigation of that stream and preventing supplies reaching Washington that way. At the middle of May, Capt. J. H. Ward, a veteran officer of the navy, was placed in command of a flotilla on the Potomac, which he had organized, composed of four armed propellers. On his way to Washington from Hampton Roads, he had captured two schooners filled with armed Confederates. He then patrolled that river, reconnoitring the banks in search of batteries which the Virginians had constructed. On the heights at Aquia Creek (the terminus of a railway from Richmond), 55 miles below Washington, he found formidable works, and attacked them, May 31, with his flag-ship, *Thomas Freeborn,* and the gunboats *Anacosta* and *Resolute.* For two hours a sharp conflict was kept up, and the batteries were silenced. Ward's ammunition for long range was exhausted, and on the slacking of his fire the batteries opened again. Unable to reply at that distance, Ward withdrew, but resumed the conflict the following day, in company with the *Pawnee,* Capt. S. C. Rowan. The struggle lasted more than five hours. Twice the batteries on shore were silenced, but their fire was renewed each time. The *Pawnee*

was badly bruised, but no person on board of her nor on Ward's flotilla was killed.

Aquiday, or **Aquetnet.** The native name of Rhode Island.

Arapahoe Indians, one of the five tribes constituting the Blackfeet confederacy, residing near the headwaters of the Arkansas and Platte rivers. They were great hunters, and fifty years ago numbered 10,000 souls. With the disappearance of the buffalo they have rapidly decreased. In 1900 one branch, numbering 1,011, was located in Oklahoma, and a second, numbering 829, in Wyoming.

ARBITRATION

Arbitration, INTERNATIONAL. In 1897 the friends of arbitration the world over were exceedingly depressed over a defeat which the principle sustained at the hands of the United States Senate. By a close vote on April 13, the Senate rejected *in toto* a measure providing for the arbitration of all disputes that may arise between the United States and Great Britain. This general arbitration measure arose from the Venezuela trouble. On March 5, 1896, Lord Salisbury submitted to Secretary Olney a suggested treaty in regard to the Venezuelan matter. On April 11, Secretary Olney proposed a few amendments to the treaty, and also suggested that a general treaty for the arbitration of all difficulties might be concluded along the same lines. The draft of this general treaty was made public Jan. 13, 1897, and at once the project became the subject of debate here and abroad. In England the proposed treaty was cordially received and promptly ratified and sent to this country. In the United States there was a great conflict of ideas concerning the measure. The treaty provided for the arbitration of all matters in difference between the countries which could not be adjusted by diplomatic correspondence. Matters involving pecuniary claims to the maximum extent of $500,000 were to be settled by a board of three arbitrators, composed of a juror of repute selected one by each country, these two to agree upon a third. If the two arbitrators failed to agree upon a third, he was to be selected by King Oscar of Sweden. In respect to matters involving a larger sum, or in respect to territorial claims, the matter was first to go before a board constituted as above described, and if the three arbitrators came to a unanimous decision their report was to be final. But if they were not unanimous, either England or the United States could demand a review of the award. In that case a tribunal of five members was to be formed in the same manner as the smaller one, and King Oscar was still to be referee. Boundary questions were to be submitted to a tribunal of six members, and the award must be unanimous. In case this could not be secured, the countries were to agree to adopt no hostile measures until the mediation of two or more friendly powers had been invoked. The treaty was to remain in force five years. The failure of the treaty does not mean that the United States is averse to arbitration as a means of settling national difficulties. This country has always been foremost in that line. But circumstances were against the measure at that time. At the very moment Great Britain was negotiating the treaty with the United States, her war-ships were firing upon the patriots of Crete. One of the great forces in the United States in favor of arbitration is the International Peace Society, originally formed in England. Its first great convention was held in London in 1851. The submission of the Venezuelan question to arbitration marked the eighteenth question that had thus been disposed of by the United States and the twenty-sixth that England had thus submitted. See BERING SEA ARBITRATION; ARBITRATION, TRIBUNAL OF, FOR "ALABAMA CLAIMS"; "VENEZUELA" and "CLEVELAND, GROVER" for VENEZUELA ARBITRATION, etc.

Arbitration, INTERNATIONAL COURT OF, a court for the arbitration of disputes between nations, provided by the Universal Peace Conference at The Hague in 1899, and made operative by the adhesion of the signatory nations and the appointment by them of members of the court.

The Arbitration Treaty consists of six-

ty-one articles, divided into four titles: First, On the Maintenance of General Peace, consisting of one declaratory article; secondly, On Good Offices and Mediation; thirdly, On International Commissions of Inquiry; fourthly, On International Arbitration.

The following is a summary of the treaty:

Article 1. With the object of preventing, as far as possible, recourse to force in international relations, the signatory powers agree to use all endeavors to effect by pacific means a settlement of the differences which may arise among them.

Article 2. The signatory powers decide that in cases of serious differences or conflict they will, before appealing to arms, have recourse, so far as circumstances permit, to the good offices or mediation of one or several friendly powers.

Article 3. Independently of this, the signatory powers deem it useful that several of the powers not committed to the arbitration scheme shall, on their own initiative, offer, as far as circumstances permit, their good offices or mediation to the contending states. The right of offering their good offices belongs to powers not connected with the conflict, even during the course of hostilities, which act can never be regarded as an unfriendly act.

Article 4. The part of mediator consists in reconciling conflicting claims and appeasing resentment which may have arisen between contending states.

Article 5. The functions of mediator cease from the moment it may be stated by one of the contending parties, or by the mediator himself, that the compromise or basis of an amicable understanding proposed by him has not been accepted.

Article 6. Good offices and mediation have the exclusive character of counsel, and are devoid of obligatory force.

Article 7. The acceptance of mediation unless otherwise stipulated, may have the effect of interrupting the obligation of preparing for war. If the acceptance supervenes after the opening of hostilities it shall not interrupt, unless by a convention of a contrary tenor, military operations that may be proceeding.

Article 8. The signatory powers agree in commending the application of special mediation in the event of threatened interruption of peace between members. Contending states may each choose a power to which they will intrust the mission of entering into a negotiation with a power chosen by the other side with the object of preventing a rupture of pacific relations, or, in the event of hostilities, of restoring peace.

Articles 9 to 14 provide for the institution of an international commission of inquiry for the verification of facts in cases of minor disputes not affecting the vital interest or honor of states, but impossible of settlement by ordinary diplomacy. The report of an inquiry commission will not force an arbitral judgment, leaving the contending parties full liberty to either conclude an amicable arrangement on the basis of the report or have recourse ulteriorly to mediation or arbitration.

Articles 15 to 19 set forth the general object of and benefits it is hoped to derive from the arbitration court, and declare that signing the convention implies an undertaking to submit in good faith to arbitral judgment. The summary of the proposed treaty continues:

Article 20. With the object of facilitating an immediate recourse to arbitration for international differences not regulated by diplomatic means the signatory powers undertake to organize in the following manner a permanent court of arbitration, accessible at all times and exercising its functions, unless otherwise stipulated, between the contending parties in conformity with the rules of procedure inserted in the present convention.

Article 21. This court is to have competency in all arbitration cases, unless the contending parties come to an understanding for the establishment of special arbitration jurisdiction.

Article 22. An international bureau established at The Hague and placed under the direction of a permanent secretary-general will serve as the office of the court. It will be the intermediary for communications concerning meetings. The court is to have the custody of archives and the management of all administrative affairs.

Article 23. Each of the signatory powers shall appoint within three months of the ratification of the present article not more than four persons of recognized competence in questions of international law, enjoying the highest moral consideration, and prepared to accept the functions of arbitrator. The persons thus nominated will be entered as members of the court on a list, which will be communicated by the bureau to all the signatory powers. Any modification of the list will be brought by the bureau to the knowledge of the signatory powers. Two or more powers may agree together regarding the nomination of one or more members, and the same person may be chosen by different powers. Members of the court are to be appointed for the term of six years. The appointments are renewable. In case of the death or resignation of a member of the court, the vacancy is to be filled in accordance with the regulations made for the original nomination.

Article 24. The signatory powers who desire to apply to the court for a settlement of differences shall select from the general list a number of arbitrators, to be fixed by agreement. They will notify the bureau of their intention of applying to the court, and give

the names of the arbitrators they may have selected. In the absence of a convention to the contrary an arbitral tribunal is to be constituted in accordance with the rules of Article 1. Arbitrators thus nominated to form an arbitral tribunal for a matter or question will meet on the date fixed by the contending parties.

Article 25. The tribunal will usually sit at The Hague, but may sit elsewhere by consent of the contending parties.

Article 26. The powers not signing the convention may apply to the court under the conditions prescribed by the present convention.

Article 27. The signatory powers may consider it their duty to call attention to the existence of the permanent court to any of their friends between whom a conflict is threatening, which must always be regarded as a tender of good offices.

The United States delegates attached to their acceptance of Article 27 the following declaration: "Nothing contained in this convention shall be so construed as to require the United States of America to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in the political questions or internal administration of any foreign state; nor shall anything contained in said convention be so construed as to require the relinquishment by the United States of America of its traditional attitude towards purely American questions."

Article 28. A permanent council, composed of the diplomatic representatives of the signatory powers residing at The Hague and the Netherlands Foreign Minister, who will exercise the functions of president, will be constituted at The Hague as soon as possible after the ratification of the present act. The council will be charged to establish and organize an international bureau, which will remain under its direction and control. The council will notify the powers of the constitution of the court and arrange its installation, draw up the standing orders and other necessary regulations, will decide questions likely to arise in regard to the working of the tribunal, have absolute powers concerning the appointment, suspension, or dismissal of functionaries or employees, will fix the emoluments and salaries, and control the general expenditure. The presence of five members at duly convened meetings will constitute a quorum. Decisions are to be taken by a majority of the votes. The council will address annually to the signatory powers a report of the labors of the court, the working of its administrative services, and of its expenditure.

Article 29. The expenses of the bureau are to be borne by the signatory powers in the proportion fixed for the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

Article 30. The powers who accept arbitration will sign a special act, clearly defining the object of the dispute, as well as the scope of the arbitrators. The powers' act confirms the undertaking of the parties to submit in good faith to the arbitration judgment.

Article 31. Arbitration functions may be conferred upon a single arbitrator, or on several arbitrators designated by the parties at their discretion, or chosen from among the members of the permanent court established by the present act. Unless otherwise decided, the formation of the arbitration tribunal is to be effected as follows: Each party will appoint two arbitrators, who will choose a chief arbitrator. In case of a division, the selection is to be intrusted to a third power, whom the parties will designate. If an agreement is not effected in this manner, each party is to designate a different power, and the choice of a chief arbitrator is to devolve upon them.

Article 32. When an arbitrator is a sovereign, or head of a state, the arbitral procedure depends exclusively on his august decision.

Article 33. The chief arbitrator is president *de jure*. When the tribunal does not contain a chief of arbitration, the tribunal may appoint its own president. He may be designated by the contending parties, or, failing this, by the arbitration tribunal.

Articles 34 to 50 provide for the appointment of councillors, the selection of the languages to be employed, and the rules of procedure in the court, whose sittings are to be behind closed doors.

Article 51 provides that a judgment agreed to by a majority vote is to be set forth in writing, giving the full reasons, and is to be signed by each member, the minority recording its dissent and signing it. Articles 52 and 53 direct that the decision of the court shall be read at a public sitting in the presence of the agents or counsel of the contending parties, who shall finally decide the matter at issue and close the arbitration proceedings.

The concluding clauses relate to the revision of proceedings in the case of the discovery of a new fact, and provide that each power shall bear its own expenses and agreed share of the cost of the tribunal without reference to the penalties imposed. See PEACE CONFERENCE.

The Senate of the United States having ratified the arbitration treaty, President McKinley appointed the American members of the court in 1900 (see below).

On Feb. 1, 1901, fifteen nations, embracing all the maritime powers, had appointed their members. The official roster then was as follows:

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Count Frederic Schönborn, LL.D., president of the Imperial Royal Court of Administrative Justice.
Mr. D. de Szilagyi, ex-Minister of Justice.
Count Albert Apponyi, member of the Chamber of Magnates.
Mr. Henri Lammasch, member of the House of Lords.

BELGIUM.

Mr. Beernaert, Minister of State.
Baron Lambermont, Minister of State.
The Chevalier Descamps, Senator.
Mr. Rolin Jacquemyns, ex-Minister of the Interior.

DENMARK.

Prof. H. Matzen, LL.D., Professor of the Copenhagen University.

FRANCE.

Mr. Léon Bourgeois, ex-President of the Cabinet Council.
Mr. de Laboulaye, ex-Ambassador.
Baron Destournelles de Constant, Minister Plenipotentiary, Deputy.
Mr. Louis Renault, Professor in the Faculty of Law at Paris.

GERMANY.

Mr. Bingner, President of the Imperial High Court at Leipsic.
Mr. von Frantzius, Solicitor of the Department of Foreign Affairs.
Mr. von Martitz, Associate Justice of the Superior Court of Administrative Justice in Prussia.
Mr. von Bar, Professor of Law at the Göttingen University.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The Right Honorable Lord Pauncefote of Preston, Ambassador at Washington.
The Right Honorable Sir Edward Baldwin Malet, ex-Ambassador.
The Right Honorable Sir Edward Fry, member of the Privy Council.
Professor John Westlake.

ITALY.

Count Constantin Nigra, Senator of the Kingdom.
Jean Baptiste Pagano Guarnaschelli, First President of the Court of Cassation at Rome.
Count Tornielli Brusati di Vergano, Ambassador to Paris.
Commander Joseph Zanardelli, Attorney at Law, Deputy to the National Parliament.

JAPAN.

Mr. I. Motono, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at Brussels.
Mr. H. Willard Denison, Law Officer of the Minister for Foreign Affairs at Tokio.

NETHERLANDS.

Mr. T. M. C. Asser, member of the Council of State, ex-Professor of the University of Amsterdam.
Mr. F. B. Coninck Liefsting, President of the Court of Cassation.
Jonkheer A. F. de Savornin Lohman, ex-Minister of the Interior, ex-Professor of the Free University of Amsterdam.
Jonkheer G. L. M. H. Ruis de Beerenbrouck, ex-Minister of Justice, Commissioner of the Queen in the Province of Limbourg.

PORTUGAL.

Count de Macedo, Peer of the Realm, ex-Minister of Marine and Colonies, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at Madrid.

RUMANIA.

Mr. Theodore Rosetti, Senator, ex-President of the High Court of Cassation and Justice.
Mr. Jean Kalindero, Administrator of the Crown Domain, ex-Judge of the High Court of Cassation and Justice.
Mr. Eugene Statsco, ex-President of the Senate, ex-Minister of Justice and Foreign Affairs.
Mr. Jean N. Lahovari, Deputy, ex-Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs.

RUSSIA.

Mr. N. V. Mouravieff, Minister of Justice, Active Privy Councillor, Secretary of State.
Mr. C. P. Pobiedonostzeff, Attorney-General of the Most Holy Synod, Secretary of State.
Mr. E. V. Frisch, President of the Department of Legislation of the Imperial Council, Secretary of State.
Mr. de Martens, Privy Councillor, permanent member of the Council of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

SPAIN.

The Duke of Tetuan, ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, Senator of the Kingdom, Grandee of Spain.
Mr. Bienvenido Oliver, Director-General of the Ministry of Justice, ex-Delegate of Spain to the Conference on Private International Law at The Hague.
Dr. Manuel Torres Campos, Professor of International Law at the University of Grenada, associate member of the Institute of International Law.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

Mr. S. R. D. K. d'Olivecrona, member of the International Law Institute, ex-Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the Kingdom of Sweden, Doctor of Laws and Letters at Stockholm.
Mr. G. Gram, ex-Minister of State of Norway, Governor of the Province of Hamar, Norway.

UNITED STATES.

Mr. Benjamin Harrison, ex-President of the United States.
Mr. Melville W. Fuller, Chief-Justice of the United States.
Mr. John W. Griggs, Attorney-General of the United States.
Mr. George Gray, United States Circuit Judge.
First Secretary of the Court—J. J. Rochussen.
Second Secretary of the Court—Jonkheer W. Roell.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE COUNCIL.

The Administrative Council consists of the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands and the diplomatic representatives at The Hague of the ratifying powers.

Secretary-General—Mr. R. Melvil, Baron van Leyden, Judge of the District Court of Utrecht and a member of the First Chamber of the States-General.

The Permanent Court was organized Jan. 30, 1901, and on April 14 following notified the signatories that it was duly constituted. It will ultimately be housed in a Temple of Peace to be erected at the expense of Andrew Carnegie, who (1903) tendered $1,500,000 for the building and $250,000 for a library of international law. Since its opening the court has decided three claims in which the United States had an interest, viz., the claim of the United States against Mexico for the custody of the old Church or Pious Fund, decided in favor of the United States, Oct. 21, 1902; the claim of the United States against Russia for seizure of American vessels by Russian war-ships in Bering Sea in 1891, decided in favor of the United States, with damage exceeding $100,000, Nov. 29, 1902; and the claims of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy against Venezuela for settlement of debts, decided that the three powers had the right to a preference of 30 per cent. of the customs duties at La Guayra and Porto Cabello, and commissioned the United States to carry out the decision within three months, Feb. 22, 1904.

Arbitration. See AMERICAN NATIONAL ARBITRATION BOARD.

Arbitration, TRIBUNAL OF, in the history of the United States and Great Britain, the name of that body of arbitrators appointed under the treaty negotiated by the JOINT HIGH COMMISSION (*q. v.*) principally to settle the claims of the United States against Great Britain, growing out of the depredations of the Confederate man-of-war *Alabama* (see ALABAMA, THE). For arbitrators, the United States appointed Charles Francis Adams, and Great Britain Sir Alexander Cockburn. The two governments jointly invited the Emperor of Brazil, the King of Italy, and the President of the Swiss Confederation each to appoint an arbitrator. The Emperor appointed Baron d'Itazuba, the King chose Count Frederick Sclopis, and the President of the Swiss Confederation appointed James Staempfli. J. C. Bancroft Davis was appointed agent of the United States, and Lord Tenterden that of Great Britain. These several gentlemen formed the "Tribunal of Arbitration." They assembled at Geneva, Switzerland, Dec. 15, 1871, when Count Sclopis was chosen to preside. After two meetings they adjourned to the middle of January, 1872. A final meeting was held in September the same year, and on the 14th of that month they announced their decision on the *Alabama* claims. That decision was a decree that the government of Great Britain should pay to the government of the United States the sum of $15,500,000 in gold, to be given to citizens of the United States in payment of losses incurred by the depredations of the *Alabama* and other Anglo-Confederate cruisers. That amount was paid into the treasury of the United States a year afterwards. The question of boundary on the Pacific coast was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the claims of the United States to the possession of the island of San Juan.

Arbor Day, a day set apart to encourage the voluntary planting of trees by the people; inaugurated by Nebraska State Board of Agriculture, in 1874, who so designated the second Wednesday in April, and recommended that all public school children should be urged to observe it by setting out young trees; and now observed as either a legal holiday or a school holiday by nearly every State and Territory in the country.

Arbuthnot and Ambrister, CASE OF. Alexander Arbuthnot, a Scotchman, then nearly seventy years of age, went to Florida from New Providence in his own schooner in 1817, to trade with the Indians. Ambrister, born in London in 1785, was a lieutenant in the English marine service, and was present at the battle of Waterloo. For fighting a duel with a brother officer he was suspended for one year. While with his uncle, the governor of New Providence, he met Arbuthnot, with whom he visited Florida. Here it was alleged they became implicated in

Indian difficulties that General Jackson was sent to quell in 1818. By order of General Jackson, Arbuthnot and Ambrister were seized and tried by a military court, convened April 26, 1818, at Fort St. Marks, Fla., Gen. Ed. P. Gaines, president, for inciting the Creek Indians to war against the United States. Ambrister made no defence, but threw himself on the mercy of the court. Arbuthnot was sentenced to be hanged. Ambrister was first sentenced to be shot, but his sentence was commuted to fifty stripes on the bare back, and confinement at hard labor, with ball and chain, for one year. General Jackson disapproved the commutation, and ordered the original sentence in both cases to be carried out, which was done April 30, 1818. This arbitrary act of Jackson created great excitement at the time, and the attention of Congress was called to it. See JACKSON, ANDREW.

Arbuthnot, MARRIOTT, British naval officer; born about 1711; became a post-captain in 1747. From 1775 to 1778 he was naval commissioner resident at Halifax, Nova Scotia. Having been raised to the rank of vice-admiral in 1779, he obtained the chief command on the American station, and was blockaded by the Count d'Estaing in the harbor of New York. In the spring of 1780 he co-operated with Sir Henry Clinton in the siege of Charleston, S. C. In February, 1793, he became admiral of the blue. He died in London, Jan. 31, 1794.

MARRIOTT ARBUTHNOT.

Archdale, JOHN, English colonial governor; born in Buckinghamshire of Quaker parents. He had taken great interest in colonial schemes, and was one of the Carolina proprietors. In their scheme he had been a great helper. His eldest sister, Mary, had married Ferdinando Gorges, grandson of Sir Ferdinando, who was governor of Maine, and in 1659 published *America Painted from Life.* Archdale had been in Maine as Gorges's agent in 1664 was in North Carolina in 1686, and was commissioner for Gorges in Maine in 1687–88. On his arrival in South Carolina as governor, in 1694, Archdale formed a commission of sensible and moderate men, to whom he said, at their first meeting, "I believe I may appeal to your serious and rational observations whether I have not already so allayed your heats as that the distinguishing titles thereof are so much withered away; and I hope this meeting with you will wholly extinguish them, so that a solid settlement of this hopeful colony may ensue; and by so doing, your posterity will bless God for so happy a conjunction." He told them why he had been sent, and said, "And now you have heard of the proprietors' intentions of sending me hither, I doubt not but the proprietors' intentions of choosing you were much of the same nature; I advise you, therefore, to proceed soberly and mildly in this weighty concern; and I question not but we shall answer you in all things that are reasonable and honorable for us to do. And now, friends, I have given you the reasons of my calling you so soon, which was the consideration of my own mortality [he was then nearly seventy years of age], and that such a considerable trust might not expire useless to you; and I hope the God of peace will prosper your counsels herein." Archdale was one of the proprietors of North Carolina, and, arriving there in the summer of 1695, had a very successful though brief administration. Elected to Parliament in 1698, he would only *affirm,* instead of taking the required oath, and was not allowed to take his seat in consequence.

Arctic Exploration. During almost four hundred years efforts have been made by European navigators to discover a passage for vessels through the Arctic seas to India. The stories of Marco Polo

of the magnificent countries in Eastern Asia and adjacent islands—Cathay and Zipangi, China and Japan—stimulated desires to accomplish such a passage. The CABOTS (*q. v.*) went in the direction of the pole, northwestward, at or near the close of the fifteenth century, and penetrated as far north as 67° 30′, or half-way up to (present) Davis Strait. The next explorers were the brothers Cortereal, who made three voyages in that direction, 1500–02. In 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby set out to find a northwest passage to India, but was driven back from Nova Zembla, and perished on the shore of Lapland. In 1576–78 Martin Frobisher made three voyages to find a northwest passage into the Pacific Ocean, and discovered the entrance to Hudson Bay. Between 1585 and 1587 John Davis discovered the strait that bears his name. The Dutch made strenuous efforts to discover a northeast passage. WILLIAM BARENTZ (*q. v.*) made three voyages in that direction in 1594–96, and perished on his third voyage. Henry Hudson tried to round the north of Europe and Asia in 1607–08, but failed, and, pushing for the lower latitudes of the American coast, discovered the river that bears his name. While on an expedition to discover a northwest passage, he found Hudson Bay, and perished (1610) on its bosom. In 1616 Baffin explored the bay called by his name, and entered the mouth of Lancaster Sound. After that, for fifty years, no navigator went so far north in that direction.

In 1720 the Hudson Bay Company sent Captains Knight and Barlow to search for a northwest passage to India. They sailed with a ship and sloop, and were never heard of afterwards. In 1741 Vitus Bering discovered the strait that bears his name, having set sail from a port in Kamtchatka. In that region Bering perished. Russian navigators tried in vain to solve the problem. Between 1769 and 1772 Samuel Hearne made three overland journeys in America to the Arctic Ocean. The British government having, in 1743, offered $100,000 to the crew who should accomplish a northwest passage, stimulated efforts in that direction. Captain Phipps (Lord Mulgrave) attempted to reach the north pole in 1773; and before setting out on his last voyage (1776), Captain Cook was instructed to attempt to penetrate the polar sea by Bering Strait. He went only as far as 70° 45′. In 1817 Captain Ross and Lieutenant Parry sailed for the polar sea from England; and the same year Captain Buchan and Lieutenant (Sir John) Franklin went in an easterly direction on a similar errand, namely, to reach the north pole. At this time the chief object of these explorations was scientific, and not commercial. Buchan and Franklin went by way of Spitzbergen; but they only penetrated to 80° 34′. Ross and Parry entered Lancaster Sound, explored its coasts, and Ross returned with the impression that it was a bay. Parry did not agree with him in this opinion, and he sailed on a further exploration in 1819. He advanced farther in that direction than any mariner before him, and approached the magnetic pole, finding the compass of little use. On Sept. 4, 1819, Parry announced to his crew that they were entitled to $20,000 offered by Parliament for reaching so westerly a point in that region, for they had passed the 110th meridian. There they were frozen in for about a year. Parry sailed again in 1821.

Meanwhile an overland expedition, led by Franklin, had gone to co-operate with Parry. They were absent from home about three years, travelled over 5,000 miles, and accomplished nothing. They had endured great suffering. Parry, also, accomplished nothing, and returned in October, 1823. Other English expeditions followed in the same direction, by land and water. Sir John Franklin and others went overland, and Parry by sea, on a joint expedition, and Captain Beechey was sent around Cape Horn to enter Bering Strait and push eastward to meet Parry. Franklin explored the North American coast, but nothing else was accomplished by these expeditions. Mr. Scoresby, a whaleman, and his son, had penetrated to 81° N. lat. in 1806. His experience led him to advise an expedition with boats fixed on sledges, to be easily dragged on the ice. With an expedition so fitted out, Captain Parry sailed for the polar waters in 1827. This expedition was a failure. Captain Ross was in the polar waters again from May, 1829, until the midsummer of 1833. The party had been given up as

lost. Another party had started in search of Ross, explored the north coast of America, and discovered Victoria Land. Other land expeditions followed; and one, under Dr. John Rae, completed a survey of the north coast of the American continent in the spring of 1847.

Sir John Franklin yet believed a northwest passage possible. With two vessels —the *Erebus* and *Terror*—each fitted with a small steam-engine and screw-propeller, he sailed from England May 19, 1845. They were seen by a whale-ship, in July, about to enter Lancaster Sound, and were never heard of afterwards. The British government despatched three expeditions in search of them in 1848. One of them was an overland expedition under Sir John Richardson, who traversed the northern coast of America 800 miles, in 1848, without finding Franklin. The sea expedition was equally unfortunate. Dr. Rae failed in an overland search in 1850. Three more expeditions were sent out by the British government in search in 1850; and from Great Britain five others were fitted out by private means. One was also sent by the United States government, chiefly at the cost of Henry Grinnell, a New York merchant. It was commanded by Lieutenant De Haven, of the navy. There were two ships, the *Advance* and *Rescue*. Dr. E. K. Kane was surgeon and naturalist of the expedition. It was unsuccessful, and returned in 1851. Lady Franklin, meanwhile, had been sending out expeditions in search of her husband, and the British government and British navigators made untiring efforts to find the lost explorers, but in vain. Another American expedition, under Dr. Kane, made an unsuccessful search.

In a scientific point of view, Dr. Kane's expedition obtained the most important results. It is believed that he saw an open polar sea; and to find that sea other American expeditions sailed under Dr. I. I. Hayes, a member of Kane's expedition, and Capt. Chas. F. Hall. The latter returned to the United States in 1860, and Dr. Hayes in 1861. Hall sailed again in 1864, and returned in 1869. The Germans and Swedes now sent expeditions in that direction. In 1869 Dr. Hayes again visited the polar waters. The same year, and for some time afterwards, several expeditions were sent out from the continent of Europe. Finally, by the help of Congress, Captain Hall was enabled to sail, with a well furnished company, in the ship *Polaris*, for the polar seas, in June, 1871. In October Hall left the vessel, and started northward on a sledge expedition. On his return he suddenly sickened and died, and the *Polaris* returned without accomplishing much. The passage from the coast of western Europe, around the north of that continent and of Asia, into the Pacific Ocean, was first accomplished in the summer of 1879, by Professor Nordenskjöld, an accomplished Swedish explorer, in the steamship *Vega*. She passed through Bering Strait into the Pacific Ocean, and reached Japan in the first week in September. Thus the great problem has been solved. The *Jeannette*, Lieutenant De Long, an American exploring vessel, was lost on the coast of Siberia, in 1881.

The most important of the recent expeditions into Arctic regions by Americans are those of Lieut. (now Brig.-Gen.) Adolphus W. Greely and of Lieut. Robert E. Peary (*qq. v.*), who has made several voyages into northern waters, and in 1900 was still there. Lieutenant Greely was sent from the United States in 1881, by the government, charged with establishing a series of stations about the pole for the purpose of observation. Lieutenants Lockwood and Brainard, of his force, succeeded in establishing a station on a small island in 83° 24′ N., and until 1896 this was the most northern point ever reached by an explorer. Greely's vessel became icebound, and for two years the members of the expedition passed a miserable existence. Many died. The survivors were rescued just as the last six of the expedition were dying of hunger, by Lieutenant Peary, in charge of two government vessels, sent by the United States to the relief of Greely in 1882. Lieutenant Peary made other voyages to the Arctic waters in 1895 and 1897. Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, of Norway, in 1896, succeeded in getting within 200 miles of the north pole, and returned in safety with all of his companions. He sailed from Christiania in 1893, and his plan differed much from that of others. He thought that if he could get his vessel caught in the ice the

current would carry him to the pole. He reached lat. 86° 15′ N. A Swedish explorer, Major Andrée, planned to reach the pole in a balloon, and on July 12, 1897, he embarked on his enterprise. Up to May, 1905, nothing reliable had been heard of the expedition. It is believed he was lost in the summer of 1897. In 1899–1900 the Duke of Abruzzi reached lat. 86° 33′ N. Peary purposes to make a new attempt in the specially built steamer *Roosevelt*, which was launched March 29, 1905. He hopes to sail sometime in July, 1905.

Arecibo, the name of a district and of its port, in the north of the island of Porto Rico. The district is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the District of Bayamon; on the south by those of Mayaguez and Ponce; and on the west by that of Aguadilla. The town is about 50 miles west of San Juan; has a population of between 6,000 and 7,000; and its harbor is so full of dangerous reefs that goods are transferred from shore to shipping by means of flat-boats and lighters. The town has a plaza, surrounded by a church and various public buildings, in the centre, and streets running from it in right angles, forming regular squares. The buildings are constructed of wood and brick.

Argall, Sir Samuel, English adventurer; born in Bristol, England, in 1572. He was in Virginia at a time when Powhatan was particularly hostile to the English settlers. He and his nearest neighbors would not allow the people to carry food to the English at Jamestown, and provisions became very scarce. Argall was sent with a vessel on a foraging expedition up the York River. Being near the dwelling of Powhatan, he bribed a savage by a gift of a copper kettle to entice Pocahontas on board his vessel, where he detained her a prisoner, hoping to get a large quantity of corn from her father as a ransom, and to recover some arms and implements of labor which the Indians had stolen. Powhatan rejected Argall's proposal for a ransom with scorn, and would not hold intercourse with the pirate; but he sent word to the authorities at Jamestown that, if his daughter should be released, he would forget the injury and be the friend of the English. They would not trust him, and the maiden was taken to Jamestown and detained several months, always treated with great respect as a princess. There she became the object of a young Englishman's affections; and the crime of Argall led to peace and happiness. The next year (1613) Argall went, with the sanction of the governor of Virginia, to expel the French from Acadia as intruders upon the domain of the North and South Virginia Company. He stopped on his way at Mount Desert Island, and broke up the Jesuit settlement there. The priests, it is said, feeling an enmity towards the authorities at Port Royal, in Acadia, willingly accompanied Argall as pilots thither in order to be revenged. Argall plundered the settlement, and laid the village in ashes, driving the people to the woods, and breaking up the colony. In 1617 Argall became deputy governor of Virginia. On going to Jamestown he found it fallen into decay, the storehouse used as a church; the market-place, streets, and other spots in the town planted with tobacco; the people dispersed according to every man's convenience for planting; and the number of the settlers there reduced. Argall's rule was so despotic that, in 1619, he was recalled, and Sir George Yeardly was put in his place. He returned to England with much wealth. After the death of Lord Delaware, Captain Argall took charge of his estate, and Lady Delaware charged him with gross fraud and peculation. He died in 1626.

Argus, Capture of the. The American brig *Argus*, Capt. W. H. Allen, bore to France William H. Crawford, United States minister to that government. She afterwards cruised in British waters, and by the celerity of her movements and destructive energy she spread consternation throughout commercial England. She carried 32-pound carronades and two bow-guns; and her commander, who had served under Decatur, was one of the most gallant men of the navy. He roamed the "chops of the Channel" successfully; and, sailing around Land's End, in the space of thirty days he captured no less than twenty valuable British merchantmen, with cargoes valued at $2,000,000. Too far away from friendly ports into which he might send his prizes, he burned all the

vessels. Every non-combatant captive he allowed to remove his private property, and for this generosity he was thanked by them. The British government, alarmed by the exploits of the *Argus*, sent out several cruisers after her. Just before the dawn of Aug. 14, 1813, the British brig *Pelican*, 18, Capt. J. F. Maples, appeared; and at six o'clock the *Argus* wore round and delivered a broadside upon her at grapeshot distance. The fire was immediately returned, and a round shot carried away Allen's leg. He refused to be taken from the deck; but soon becoming unconscious from loss of blood, he was taken to the cockpit, and died the next day. The men of the *Argus*, weakened by too free use of captured wine the night before, did not fight with their usual vigor, yet they handled the vessel admirably. Lieut. W. Howard Allen was left in chief command. Very soon the *Argus* became so badly injured that she began to reel. All her braces were shot away, and she could not be kept in position. The *Pelican* at length crossed her stern, and raked her dreadfully; and at the end of twenty-five minutes from the beginning of the action the *Argus* became unmanageable. Yet she fought on feebly twenty minutes longer, when she was compelled to surrender, the *Sea-Horse*, the *Pelican's* consort, having hove in sight. The *Argus* lost, in killed and wounded, twenty-three men; the *Pelican* lost seven men.

Arid Regions. See IRRIGATION.

Arista, MARIANO, a Mexican military officer; born at San Luis Potosi, July 26, 1802. Receiving a military education, he served in the Spanish army until June, 1821, when he joined the Mexican revolutionists. He rose rapidly to the rank of brigadier-general; and in June, 1833, he was made, by SANTA ANA (*q. v.*), second in command of the Mexican army. Joining another leader in an unsuccessful revolt, he was expelled from Mexico, and came to the United States. In 1835 he returned, and was restored to his rank in the army, and made Judge of the Supreme Tribunal of War. He was taken prisoner by the French at Vera Cruz (Dec. 5, 1838), but was soon released on parole. In 1839 he became general-in-chief of the northern division of the army, and received the "Cross of Honor" for defeating insurgents. Though only a military commander, he was for some time the real ruler of Mexico when Herrera was President in 1844. Commanding at the battles of PALO ALTO and RESACA DE LA PALMA (*q. v.*) in May, 1848, he was appointed Minister of War a month later. Within two years he suppressed seventeen revolts in Mexico; and in 1850 he was elected President of his native country. He resigned the government in July, 1853. Banished from his country by his enemies, he made a voyage to Europe; and died there on the day when Santa Ana, who had usurped his seat, was compelled to fly from the city of Mexico, Aug. 7, 1855.

Aristocracy, in a political sense, a government exercised by the best citizens in the community, which in olden times meant the nobles. The word in time came to be applied to those people in a country who were superior to the rest of the community in any marked respect; hence, there were the aristocracies of rank, of intellect, of knowledge, and of high moral feeling. An aristocrat was a member of such a governing class in a nation, or one of especially high rank who was not connected with actual administration. In the United States there is no recognition of an aristocracy of birth; yet in the early days of the country the social and official lines were naturally very closely drawn, and for a time the public men of the day were divided into the classes of aristocracy and democracy, using the latter word in the sense of representing all the people. The word oligarchy was also applied to the aristocracy, and originally meant both a form of government in which the supreme power was vested in the hands of a small exclusive class, and also the members of such a class. In latter years the word oligarchy came to be applied to a body of people outside of political life who aspired to or had control of the management of a large interest, such, for instance, as certain leaders in the Congregational Church in the early history of Connecticut.

Arizona, a Territory in the extreme southwestern portion of the republic, lying on the border of Mexico. The region was early known to Spanish explorers. As early as 1526, Don José de Vasconcellos, a follower of Cortez, crossed the centre of

this Territory towards the Great Cañon, and the region was afterwards visited by other Spanish explorers. They then, as we do now, found on the river-banks ruins of cities which seemed to have existed for centuries. These, with regular fortifications, reservoirs, and canals, show that the country was once inhabited by an enterprising and cultivated people. There are found walls of solid masonry, usually two stories in height. It is estimated that fully 100,000 people must have inhabited the valley of the Gila alone. Arizona was settled by Spanish missionaries from Mexico as early as 1687. These missions were principally seated on the Lower Colorado and Gila rivers. The Territory formed a part of Mexico until its purchase by the United States in 1850. It was organized into a Territory by act of Congress, Feb. 24, 1863, with its area described as comprising all the "United States lands west of longitude 109° to the California line." Since then the northwest corner has been ceded to Nevada. It is a mountainous region, and some of the northern portion remains unexplored. Population in 1890, 59,691; in 1900, 122,212.

To one of the pioneer explorers of the Arizona region the Zuni Indians gave the following account of their origin as preserved in their traditions. Their legend relates that in the beginning a race of men sprang up out of the earth, as plants arise and come forth in the spring. This race increased until they spread over the whole earth, and, after continuing through countless ages, passed away. The earth then remained without people a great length of time, until at length the sun had compassion on the earth, and sent a celestial maiden to repeople the globe. This young goddess was called Arizonia, the name signifying "Maiden Queen." This Arizonia dwelt upon the earth a great length of time in lonely solitude, until at a certain time, while basking in the sunbeams, a drop of dew from heaven rested upon Arizonia, who in due time blessed the world with twins, a son and a daughter, and these became the father and mother of the Zuni Indians, and from this tribe arose all other races of men, the black, white, olive, and all other clay-colored men being merely apostate offshoots from this original tribe, and the Zunis being the only pure, original stock. See UNITED STATES—ARIZONA, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF THE TERRITORY.

	Term of Office.
R. C. McCormick	1867-69
A. P. K. Safford	1870-77
John P. Hoyt	1878
John C. Frémont	1879-82
Frederick Tuttle	1882-85
C. Meyer Zulick	1885-89
Lewis Wolfley	1889-91
John N. Irwin	1891-92
Nathan O. Murphy	1892-94
Lewis C. Hughes	1894-96
Benj. J. Franklin	1896-97
Myron H. McCord	1897-99
Nathan O. Murphy	1899-1903
Alexander O. Brodie	1903-06

Arkansas, one of the Southwestern States; discovered by De Soto in 1541, who crossed the Mississippi near the site of Helena. It was next visited by FATHER MARQUETTE (*q. v.*) in 1673. It was originally a part of Louisiana, purchased from the French in 1803, and so remained until 1812, when it formed a part of Missouri Territory. It was erected into a Territory in 1819, with its present name, and remained under a territorial government until 1836. Its first territorial legislature met at Arkansas Post in 1820. On June 15, 1836, Arkansas was admitted into the Union as a State.

In 1861 the people of Arkansas were attached to the Union, but, unfortunately, the governor and most of the leading politicians of the State were disloyal, and no effort was spared by them to obtain the passage of an ordinance of secession. For this purpose a State convention of delegates assembled at the capital (Little Rock) on March 4, 1861. It was composed of seventy-five members, of whom forty were such stanch Unionists that it was evident that no ordinance of secession could be passed. The friends of secession then proposed a plan that seemed fair. A self-constituted committee reported to the convention an ordinance providing for an election to be held on the first Monday in August, at which the legal voters of the State should decide, by ballot, for "secession" or "co-operation." If a majority should appear for "secession," that fact would be considered in the light of instructions to the convention to pass an ordinance to that effect; if for

"co-operation," then measures were to be used, in conjunction with the border slave States "yet in the Union," for the settlement of existing difficulties. The next session of the convention was fixed for Aug. 17. The proposition seemed so fair that it was adopted by unanimous vote, and the convention adjourned, subject to the call of its president, who was known as a Union man.

Taking advantage of the excitement incident to the attack on Fort Sumter and the President's call for troops, the governor (Rector) and his disloyal associates adopted measures for arraying Arkansas among the "seceded States." In violation of the pledge of the convention that the whole matter should be determined by the people in August, the governor induced the president of the convention to call that body together on May 6. It met on that day. Seventy delegates were present. An ordinance of secession, previously prepared, was presented to it at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the hall in which the delegates met was crowded by an excited multitude. It was moved that the "yeas" and "nays" on the question should be taken without debate. Though the motion was rejected by a considerable majority, the president declared it carried. Then a vote on the ordinance was taken. There seemed to be a majority against it; but the president arose and earnestly exhorted the Unionists to change their votes, which they did, as they perceived a determination on the part of the crowd of spectators to compel them to do so. The place (the hall of the House of Representatives) was densely packed with human beings. As each vote was given there was a solemn stillness, and one Union man after another prefaced his vote by some stirring sentiment in favor of the South. When the result was announced—69 for the ordinance, to 1 against it—there was tremendous cheering. The negative vote was given by Isaac Murphy, who was the Union governor of Arkansas in 1864.

Meanwhile the State authorities had seized the national property in the State. During almost the whole period of the war, National or Confederate troops occupied the State; and one of the most hotly contested battles of the war was fought on its soil (see PEA RIDGE). On Oct. 30, 1863, a meeting of loyal citizens, representing about twenty counties, was held at Fort Smith, to take measures for reorganizing the State government. In January following, a convention, composed of representatives of forty-two counties, assembled at Little Rock, and framed a loyal constitution, which was ratified by the people in March, 1864. In April a State government was organized. In 1867 military rule was established in Arkansas, which, with Mississippi, constituted a military district. A new constitution was framed by a convention at Little Rock, Jan. 7, 1868, and was ratified by a small majority in March. On June 22 Congress declared Arkansas entitled to representation in that body, and the administration of the government was transferred to the civil authority. Population in 1890, 1,125,385; in 1900, 1,311,564. See UNITED STATES—ARKANSAS, in vol. ix.

STATE SEAL OF ARKANSAS.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS OF ARKANSAS.

	Term of Office.
James Miller	1819 to 1825
George Izard	1825 " 1829
John Pope	1829 " 1835
William S. Fulton	1835 " 1836

STATE GOVERNORS OF ARKANSAS.

James S. Conway	1836 to 1840
Archibald Yell	1840 " 1844
Samuel Adams	1844
Thomas S. Drew	1844 " 1848
John S. Roane	1848 " 1852
Elias N. Conway	1852 " 1860
Henry M. Rector	1860 " 1862
Harris Flanagin	1862 " 1864
Isaac Murphy	1864 " 1868
Powell Clayton	1868 " 1871
Orzo H. Hadley	1871 " 1872
Elisha Baxter	1872 " 1874
Augustus H. Garland	1874 " 1876
Wm. R. Miller	1877 " 1881
Thos. J. Churchill	1881 " 1883
Jas. H. Berry	1883 " 1885
Simon P. Hughes	1885 " 1889
James P. Eagle	1889 " 1893
Wm. M. Fishback	1893 " 1895
James P. Clarke	1895 " 1897
Daniel W. Jones	1897 " 1901
Jefferson Davis	1901 " 1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS FROM THE STATE OF ARKANSAS.

Names.	No. of Congress.	Date.
William S. Fulton.....	24th to 28th	1836 to 1844
Ambrose H. Sevier....	24th " 30th	1836 " 1848
Chester Ashley.....	28th " 30th	1844 " 1848
Solon Borland.....	30th " 33d	1848 " 1853
Wm. K. Sebastian.....	30th " 36th	1848 " 1861
Robert W. Johnston...	33d " 36th	1853 " 1861
37th, 38th, and 39th Congresses vacant.		
Alexander McDonald...	40th to 42d	1868 to 1871
Benj. F. Rice.....	40th " 43d	1868 " 1873
Powell Clayton.....	42d " 45th	1871 " 1877
Stephen W. Dorsey....	44th " 46th	1873 " 1879
Augustus H. Garland..	45th " 49th	1877 " 1885
James D. Walker.....	46th " 49th	1879 " 1885
James K. Jones.....	49th " 57th	1885 " 1903
James H. Berry.....	49th " ——	1885 " ——
James P. Clarke.....	58th " ——	1903 " ——

Arkansas Post. See HINDMAN, FORT.

Arkansas, THE, a Confederate "ram," employed chiefly on the Yazoo River, above Vicksburg. Farragut sent three armored vessels about the middle of July, 1862, to attack her. Six miles up the stream they found and assailed her; but she repulsed the attack, and took shelter under the batteries at Vicksburg. Another attempt to capture her was made on July 22 by the *Essex* (Captain Porter) and the *Queen of the West*. Again the attempt was unsuccessful. After the repulse of the Confederates at Baton Rouge, early in August, Porter, with the *Essex* and two other gunboats, went in search of the *Arkansas*, and found her 5 miles above that city. A sharp engagement ensued. The *Arkansas* became unmanageable, when her crew ran her against the river-bank, set her on fire, and she was blown up.

Armand, CHARLES TEFFIN, MARQUIS DE LA ROUARIE, French military officer; born near Rennes, in 1756; came to America in 1777, and entered the Continental army as a volunteer. He received the commission of colonel, and commanded a small corps, to which was attached a company of cavalry who acted as the police of camps. He was an exceedingly active officer, and was highly esteemed by Washington. In February, 1780, his corps was incorporated with that of Pulaski, who was killed at Savannah a few months before. In March, 1783, his services throughout the war from 1777 were recognized, and he was created a brigadier-general. Returning to France, he took part in the Revolution there, and was for a time a prisoner in the Bastile. The execution of Louis XVI. gave such a shock to his nervous system that he sank under it and died, Jan. 30, 1793.

Armenians, a Christian people occupying the high plains and valleys of a country east of Asia Minor and northeast of Syria, estimated as numbering from 3,000,000 to 5,000,000 people. In the spring of 1894 the Turks claimed that the Armenians were preparing to revolt against the Kurds, and, in fact, several conflicts did take place between these people. Turkish troops were sent to aid the Kurds and suppress the Armenians, and then began a long list of massacres which aroused the whole world. On Feb. 20, 1896, CLARA BARTON (*q. v.*), of the Red Cross Society, sailed from New York for Armenia, and took charge of the relief work of this country. While the governments seemed powerless to aid the Armenians, the citizens of this country made generous subscriptions for the sufferers. Three ship-loads of goods were sent from this country and over $600,000 in money. The inaction of the European powers during these outrages must always be regarded with amazement. As to the total number of Armenians butchered, only a conjecture can be formed. Not until the beginning of 1897 did the massacre cease. The total number of victims is generally conceded to have been over 50,000. Out of 3,300 Armenian villages, it is estimated that 2,500 were destroyed. Besides the people killed in massacres, it is estimated that the ravages committed by the Turks caused 75,000 Armenians to die of starvation. Jan. 27, 1896, Congress passed concurrent resolutions calling upon the European powers to stop the massacres, and to secure the Christians the rights to which they were entitled. The Sultan of Turkey, under great pressure, promised reforms. A vast amount of mission property was destroyed, and claims for indemnity were presented by all the powers, few of which have been paid. That of the United States, after uncompromising pressure on the part of its ambassadors, was settled in December, 1900, by the placing of the order for a war-ship in this country, and including the amount of the indemnity in the contract price.

Armistead, GEORGE, military officer; born in New Market, Caroline co., Va.,

April 10, 1780; entered the army as second lieutenant in 1799. In 1813 he held the rank of major in the 3d Artillery, and was distinguished at the capture of Fort George. His gallant defence of Fort McHenry in September, 1814, won for him immortal honors. He had five brothers in the military service in the second war for independence — three in the regular army and two in the militia service. Because of his bravery in defending Baltimore, he was brevetted a lieutenant-colonel; and the citizens presented him with an elegant silver service in the form of a vase fashioned like a bombshell, with goblets and salver. After his death at Baltimore, April 25, 1818, a fine marble monument was erected there to his memory, and the grateful citizens also erected a large monument, designed by Maximilian Godefroy, in memory of *all* the defenders of Baltimore.

THE ARMISTEAD VASE.

GEORGE ARMISTEAD.

Armistead, Lewis Addison, military officer; born in Newbern, N. C., Feb. 18, 1817; entered the United States army as lieutenant in 1839; served throughout the Mexican War; resigned in 1861 to join the Confederate army. He was mortally wounded while leading his brigade in Pickett's charge at Gettysburg, and died in the Federal hospital, July 3, 1863.

Armour, Philip Danforth, philanthropist; born in Stockbridge, N. Y., May 16, 1832; received a public school education. In 1852–56 he was a miner in California; in 1856–63 engaged in the commission business in Milwaukee, Wis. In 1892 he built the Armour Institute of Technology in Chicago at a cost of $1,500,000, and in the same year endowed it with $1,400,000; in 1898 he increased this endowment by $500,000; and in 1899 made another addition of $750,000. He died in Chicago, Jan. 6, 1901.

Armstrong, John, military officer; born in Carlisle, Pa., Nov. 25, 1758. While a student at Princeton, in 1775, he became a volunteer in Potter's Pennsylvania regiment, and was soon afterwards made an aide-de-camp to General Mercer. He was afterwards placed on the staff of General Gates, and remained so from the begin-

ning of that officer's campaign against Burgoyne until the end of the war, having the rank of major. Holding a facile pen, he was employed to write the famous

JOHN ARMSTRONG.

Newburgh Addresses. They were powerfully and eloquently written. After the war he was successively Secretary of State and Adjutant-General of Pennsylvania; and in 1784 he conducted operations against the settlers in the Wyoming Valley. The Continental Congress in 1787 appointed him one of the judges for the Northwestern Territory, but he declined. Two years later he married a sister of Chancellor Livingston, removed to New York, purchased a farm within the precincts of the old Livingston Manor on the Hudson, and devoted himself to agriculture. He was a member of the national Senate from 1800 to 1804, and became United States minister at the French Court in the latter year, succeeding his brother-in-law, Chancellor Livingston. He was commissioned a brigadier-general in July, 1812, and in January, 1813, became Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Madison. His lack of success in the operations against Canada, and at the attack upon and capture of Washington in 1814, made him so unpopular that he resigned and retired to private life. He died at Red Hook, N. Y., April 1, 1843. General Armstrong wrote *Notes on the War of 1812*, and *Lives of Generals Montgomery and Wayne* for *Sparks's American Biography;* also a *Review of Wilkinson's Memoirs*, and treatises on agriculture and gardening.

Armstrong, SAMUEL CHAPMAN, founder of the Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute; born in Wailuku, Hawaii, in 1839. He was educated in Oahu College, Honolulu, and Williams College (U. S.), where he was graduated in 1862; fought with distinction in the Civil War, and afterwards became interested in the education of poor colored people; and founded Hampton Institute in 1868. After ten years of successful administration, the government arranged to have Indian children admitted in 1878, and since that time the school has successfully taught members of both races. He died in 1893.

ARMY

Army. The military system of the United States is based upon volunteer armies, raised as occasion may require. A small standing army is kept up for the support of good order and for safety against incursions of barbarians on the borders of expanding settlements; and a well-regulated militia, under the control of the respective States, forms an ample body of citizen soldiery. The first act for the enrolment in the militia of all able-bodied white men of eighteen and under forty-five years of age was passed by Congress in 1792. This act provided that in the organization there should be infantry, cavalry, and artillery. An act was passed early in 1795 which empowered the President, in case of invasion, or imminent danger thereof, to call forth the militia of the State or States most convenient to the place of danger. He was also empowered, in case of insurrection, or when the laws of the United States should be opposed by a combination too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, to call out the militia. The Civil War gave full examples of the working of our military system. When combinations in the slave States became too powerful for

the civil authorities to oppose, the President of the United States called for 75,000 militia (designating the number required from each State) to suppress them. As soon as the various regiments from the States were mustered into the service of the United States they were no longer under the control of their respective State governments, but of that of the national government, and were assigned to brigades, divisions, corps, and armies, according to the requirements of the service. They were then entirely supported by the national government. All their general and staff officers were commissioned by the President, and no officers, after having been mustered into the service of the United States, could be dismissed by the State authorities. During the Civil War, from first to last, 2,690,401 men, including reinforcements, were enrolled, equipped, and organized into armies. The regular army during that war was raised to something over 50,000 men, but was reduced, at its close, to 30,000 men. The standing army in 1890 numbered 25,220 men, and was mainly used in garrisoning the permanent fortifications, protecting the routes of commerce across the continent, and preserving order among the Indian tribes west of the Mississippi River.

The Army in 1901.—The organization of the regular army on the permanent peace basis of one soldier to each 1,000 of population, under the act of Congress of Feb. 2, 1901, was announced in the general order of May 13, 1901:

Cavalry, 15 regiments (12 troops of 85 men), with band, etc.; total, 15,840.

Artillery, 126 companies of 109 men each; 30 batteries of 160 men each; with bands, etc.; total, 18,862.

Infantry, 30 regiments (12 companies of 104 men), with bands, etc.; total, 38,520.

Engineers, 3 battalions (4 companies of 104 men), with bands, etc.; total, 1,282.

Staff department, signal corps, etc., 2,783.

Total number of enlisted men, 77,287.

Under the act of March 4, 1899, military divisions and departments were reorganized as follows:

Headquarters of the Army.—Commander, Lieut.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles, Washington, D. C.

Division of the Philippines.—Consisting of the Departments of Northern Luzon, Southern Luzon, Visayas, Mindanao, and Jolo, comprising all the islands ceded to the United States by Spain; headquarters, Manila, P. I. Commander, Maj.-Gen. Arthur MacArthur.

Department of Northern Luzon.—Includes all that part of the Island of Luzon north of Laguna de Bay and the province of Laguna, the same being the provinces of Abra, Bontoc, Benguet, Bataan, Bulacan, Cagayan, Ilocos, Infanta, Morong, Norte, Ilocos Sur, La Isabela de Luzon, Lepanto, La Union, Nueva Vizcaya, Nueva Ecija, all that portion of Manila north of the Pasig River, Principe, Pangasinan, Pampanga, Tarlac, and Zambales, and all the islands in the Philippine Archipelago north of Manila Bay and the provinces above named; headquarters, Manila, P. I. Commander, Maj.-Gen. Lloyd Wheaton.

Department of Southern Luzon.—Includes the Island of Samar and all the remaining part of the Island of Luzon, the same including the following provinces: Albay, Batangas, Camarines Norte, Camarines Sur, Cavité, La Laguna, Manila south of the Pasig, and Tayabas, and all islands of the Philippine Archipelago which lie south of the south line of the Department of Northern Luzon, as above described, including the Island of Polillo, and north of a line passing southeastwardly through the West Pass of Apo to the twelfth parallel of north latitude; thence easterly along said parallel to 124° 10′ east of Greenwich, but including the entire Island of Masbate; thence northerly through San Bernardino Straits; headquarters, Manila, P. I. Commander, Maj.-Gen. John C. Bates.

Department of the Visayas.—Includes all islands (except Island of Samar) south of the southern line of the Department of Southern Luzon and east of long. 121° 45′ east of Greenwich and north of the ninth parallel of latitude, excepting the Island of Mindanao and all islands east of the Straits of Surigao; headquarters, Iloilo, P. I. Commander, Brig.-Gen. Robert P. Hughes.

Department of Mindanao and Jolo.—Includes all the remaining islands of the Philippine Archipelago; headquarters, Zamboanga, P. I. Commander, Brig.-Gen. William A. Kobbé.

Department of Alaska.—Territory of Alaska; headquarters, Fort St. Michael, Alaska. Commander, Brig.-Gen. George M. Randall.

Department of California.—States of California and Nevada, the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies; headquarters, San Francisco, Cal. Commander, Maj.-Gen. William R. Shafter.

Department of the Colorado.—States of Wyoming (except so much thereof as is embraced in the Yellowstone National Park), Colorado, and Utah, and the Territories of Arizona and New Mexico; headquarters, Denver, Col. Commander, Brig.-Gen. Henry C. Merriam.

Department of the Columbia.—States of Washington, Oregon, Idaho (except so much of the latter as is embraced in the Yellowstone National Park); headquarters, Vancouver Barracks, Wash. Commander, ———.

DEPARTMENT OF CUBA.—Consisting of the provinces of the Island of Cuba; headquarters, Havana, Cuba. Commander, Brig.-Gen. Leonard Wood.

DEPARTMENT OF DAKOTA.—States of Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and so much of Wyoming and Idaho as is embraced in the Yellowstone National Park; headquarters, St. Paul, Minn. Commander, Brig.-Gen. James F. Wade.

DEPARTMENT OF THE EAST.—New England States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, and District of Porto Rico, embracing Porto Rico and adjacent islands; headquarters, Governor's Island, N. Y. Commander, Maj.-Gen. John R. Brooke.

DEPARTMENT OF THE LAKES.—States of Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee; headquarters, Chicago, Ill. Commander, Maj.-Gen. Elwell S. Otis.

DEPARTMENT OF THE MISSOURI.—States of Iowa, Nebraska, Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas, the Indian Territory, and the Territory of Oklahoma; headquarters, Omaha, Neb. Commander, Brig.-Gen. Fitzhugh Lee.

DEPARTMENT OF TEXAS.—State of Texas; headquarters, San Antonio, Tex. Commander, Col. Chambers McKibbin, 12th Infantry.

An act of Congress of June 6, 1900, reorganized the regular army and re-established the grade of lieutenant-general by the following provision: "That the senior major-general of the line commanding the army shall have the rank, pay, and allowances of a lieutenant-general." In his annual message to Congress, Dec. 3, 1900, President McKinley urged a provision for increasing the army in order to maintain its strength after June 30, 1901, when it would be reduced according to the act of March 4, 1899. He detailed the employment of the various branches of the army, and asked for authority to increase the total force to 100,000 men, as was provided in the temporary act of 1899. A bill to carry out the President's recommendation was introduced in Congress; was adopted by the Senate, where it originated, Jan. 18, 1901; and the House adopted the conference report on the bill Jan. 25, following. Under this bill the President, on Feb. 5, sent to the Senate the following nominations for the reorganized army:

TO BE LIEUTENANT-GENERAL.

Maj.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles.

TO BE MAJOR-GENERALS.

Brig.-Gen. Samuel B. M. Young, U. S. A.
Col. Adna R. Chaffee, 8th Cavalry, U. S. A. (Major-General, U. S. V.).
Brig.-Gen. Arthur MacArthur, U. S. A. (Major-General, U. S. V.).

TO BE BRIGADIER-GENERALS.

Col. John C. Bates, 2d Infantry, U. S. A. (Major-General U. S. V.).
Col. Lloyd Wheaton, 7th Infantry, U. S. A. (Major-General, U. S. V.).
Col. George W. Davis, 23d Infantry (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Col. Theodore Schwan, Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Col. Samuel S. Sumner, 6th Cavalry, U. S. A.
Capt. Leonard Wood, Assistant Surgeon, U. S. A. (Major-General, U. S. V.).
Col. Robert H. Hall, 4th Infantry, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Col. Robert P. Hughes, Inspector-General, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Col. George M. Randall, 8th Infantry, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Maj. William A. Kobbé, 3d Artillery, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).
Brig.-Gen. Frederick D. Grant, U. S. V.
Capt. J. Franklin Bell, 7th Cavalry, U. S. A. (Brigadier-General, U. S. V.).

Continental Army.—On the morning after the affair at Lexington and Concord (April 20, 1775), the Massachusetts Committee of Safety sent a circular letter to all the towns in the province, saying: "We conjure you, by all that is dear, by all that is sacred; we beg and entreat you, as you will answer it to your country, to your consciences, and, above all, to God himself, that you will hasten and arrange, by all possible means, the enlistment of men to form the army, and send them forward to headquarters at Cambridge with that expedition which the vast importance and instant urgency of the affair demands." This call was answered by many people before it reached them. It arose spontaneously out of the depths of their own patriotic hearts. The field, the workshop, the counter, the desk, and even the pulpit, yielded their tenants, who hurried towards Boston. Many did not wait to change their clothes. They took with them neither money nor food, intent only upon having their firelocks in order. The women on the way opened wide their doors and hearts for the refreshment and encouragement of the patriotic volunteers, and very soon all New England was represented at Cambridge in a motley host of full 20,000 men. On the afternoon of the 20th (April) Gen. Artemas Ward assumed the chief command of the gathering

volunteers. The Provincial Congress labored night and day to provide for their organization and support. The second Continental Congress convened at Philadelphia (May 10), and on June 7, in a resolution for a general fast, had spoken for the first time of "the twelve united colonies." Gen. Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, the senior in command of the provincial militia, assumed the chief command of the volunteers who gathered near Boston after the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord. He was good, but aged, and not possessed of sufficient military ability or personal activity to make an energetic commander of a large army. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts apprehended the melting-away of the army gathered at Cambridge unless a more efficient leader might be found, and, to avoid giving offence, they asked the Continental Congress to assume the regulation and direction of that army. Joseph Warren, in a private letter to Samuel Adams, wrote that the request was to be interpreted as a desire for the appointment of a new chief commander of all the troops that might be raised. Just then the news arrived of the approach of reinforcements for Gage, under Generals Clinton, Howe, and Burgoyne, and Congress felt the importance of acting promptly. At the suggestion of John Adams, the army was adopted as a continental one; and, at the suggestion of the New England delegation, Thomas Johnson, of Maryland, nominated George Washington, of Virginia, for commander-in-chief of the armies of the inchoate republic. He was elected (June 15, 1775) by unanimous vote, and on the following morning John Hancock, president of Congress, officially announced to Washington his appointment. The Virginia colonel arose and, in a brief and modest speech, formally accepted the office. After expressing doubts of his ability to perform the duties satisfactorily, he said, "As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress that, as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept the arduous employment at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. Those, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that is all I desire." Washington was then a little past forty-three years of age. He left Philadelphia for Cambridge a week later, where he arrived on July 2; and at about nine o'clock on the morning of the 3d, standing in the shade of an elm-tree in Cambridge, he formally assumed the command of the army, then numbering about 16,000 men, all New-Englanders. The following were appointed his assistants: Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam, major-generals; and Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene, brigadier-generals. Horatio Gates was appointed as adjutant-general. The pay of a major-general was fixed at $166 a month; of a brigadier-general, $125; of the adjutant-general, $125; commissary-general of stores and provisions, $80; quartermaster-general, $80; deputy quartermaster-general, $40; paymaster-general, $100; deputy paymaster-general, $50; chief-engineer, $60; assistant engineer, $20; aide-de-camp, $33; secretary to the general, $66; secretary to a major-general, $33; commissary of musters, $40. Washington found an undisciplined force, and immediately took measures to bring order out of confusion. Congress had provided for one adjutant-general, one quartermaster-general and a deputy, one commissary-general, one paymaster-general and a deputy, one chief-engineer and two assistants of the grand army, and an engineer and two assistants for the army in a separate department; three aides-de-camp, a secretary to the general and to the major-generals, and a commissary of musters. Joseph Trumbull, son of the governor of Connecticut, was appointed commissary-general; Thomas Mifflin, quartermaster-general; and Joseph Reed, of Philadelphia, was chosen by Washington to the important post of secretary to the commander-in-chief.

Soon after Washington took command of the army the legislature of Massachusetts and the governor of Connecticut applied to him for detachments from the army for the protection of points on their respective sea-coasts exposed to predatory attacks from British cruisers. Washington, in a letter dated July 31, 1775, answered these appeals with a refusal, after

giving satisfactory reasons for his decision. He pointed out the danger to be apprehended by scattering the army in detachments. He said the matter had been debated in Congress, and that they had come to the wise conclusion that each province should defend itself from small and particular depredations. It was then established as a rule, that attacks of the enemy at isolated points along the coast "must be repelled by the militia in the vicinity," except when the Continental army was in a condition to make detachments without jeoparding the common cause.

In October, 1775, a committee of Congress visited the camp at Cambridge, and, in consultation with Washington and committees of the New England colonies, agreed upon a plan for the reorganization of the besieging army. It was to consist of twenty-six regiments, besides riflemen and artillery. Massachusetts was to furnish sixteen; Connecticut, five; New Hampshire, three; and Rhode Island, two —in all about 20,000 men; the officers to be selected out of those already in the service. It was easier to plan an army than to create one. According to a return submitted to Congress, the Continental army, on the day when the Declaration of Independence was adopted, consisted of 7,754 men present fit for duty, including one regiment of artillery. Their arms were in a wretched condition. Of nearly 1,400 muskets, the firelocks were bad; more than 800 had none at all; and 3,827 —more than half the whole number of infantry—had no bayonets. Of the militia who had been called for, only 800 had joined the camp. With this force Washington was expected to defend an extended line of territory against an army of about 30,000 men.

During the encampment at Valley Forge a committee of Congress spent some time with Washington in arranging a plan for the reorganization of the army. By it each battalion of foot, officers included, was to consist of 582 men, arranged in nine companies; the battalion of horse and artillery to be one-third smaller. This would have given the army 60,000 men; but, in reality, it never counted more than half that number. General Greene was appointed quartermaster-general; Jeremiah Wadsworth, of Connecticut, commissary-general; Colonel Scammel, of New Hampshire, adjutant-general; and Baron de Steuben, a Prussian officer, inspector-general. To allay discontents in the army because of the great arrearages of the soldiers' pay, auditors were appointed to adjust all accounts; and each soldier who should serve until the end of the war was promised a gratuity of $80. The officers were promised half-pay for seven years from the conclusion of peace.

In the spring of 1779, on the report of a committee of Congress, that body proceeded to a new organization of the army. Four regiments of cavalry and artillery, hitherto independent establishments raised at large, were now credited towards the quota of the States in which they had been enlisted. The State quotas were reduced to eighty battalions: Massachusetts to furnish fifteen; Virginia and Pennsylvania, eleven each; Connecticut and Maryland, eight each; the two Carolinas, six each; New York, five; New Hampshire and New Jersey, three each; Rhode Island, two; and Delaware and Georgia, one each. Congress allowed $200 bounty for each recruit, and the States made large additional offers: but the real amount was small, for at that time the Continental paper money had greatly depreciated. It was found necessary to replenish the regiments by drafts from the militia. The whole force of the American army, exclusive of a few troops in the Southern department, consisted, late in the spring of 1779, of only about 8,600 effective men. At that time the British had 11,000 at New York and 4,000 or 5,000 at Newport, besides a considerable force in the South. In 1780 a committee of Congress, of which General Schuyler was chairman, were long in camp, maturing, with Washington, a plan for another reorganization of the army. Congress agreed to the plan. The remains of sixteen additional battalions were to be disbanded, and the men distributed to the State lines. The army was to consist of fifty regiments of foot, including Hazen's, four regiments of artillery, and one of artificers, with two partisan corps under Annard and Lee. There were to be four other legionary corps, two-thirds horse and one-third foot. All new enlistments were to be "for the

war." The officers thrown out by this new arrangement were to be entitled to half-pay for life. The same was promised to all officers who should serve to the end of the war. The army, as so arranged, would consist of 36,000 men; never half that number were in the field.

At the beginning of 1781 the sufferings of the Continental soldiers for want of food and clothing was almost unbearable, and there were signs of a prevailing mutinous spirit. Washington knew well their intense suffering and equally intense patriotism, and deeply commiserated their condition. He knew they could be trusted to the last moment, and deprecated the conduct of those who suspected a mutinous spirit in the whole army, and manifested their distrust. When General Heath, with his suspicions alert, employed spies to watch for and report mutinous expressions, Washington wrote to him: "To seem to draw into question the fidelity and firmness of the soldiers, or even to express a doubt of their obedience, may occasion such a relaxation of discipline as would not otherwise exist." The condition of the army was most wretched. A committee of Congress reported that it had been "unpaid for five months; that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat; that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left." The clothing of the soldiers was in tatters, and distress of mind and body prevailed everywhere in the service. No wonder that some of the soldiers, who believed that their term of service had expired, mutinied, and marched towards Philadelphia to demand redress from the Congress.

It was expected that the immediate disbanding of the army would follow the proclamation of peace. A definitive treaty had not yet been negotiated, and British troops still held New York City. It would not be safe, under such circumstances, to actually disband the army. The Congress therefore decided that the engagements of men enlisted for the war were binding till the treaty of peace was definitely ratified. On the recommendation of Washington orders were issued for granting furloughs or discharges at the discretion of the commander-in-chief. Greene was authorized to grant furloughs for North Carolina troops; and the lines of Maryland and Pennsylvania serving under him were ordered to march for their respective States. Three months' pay was to be furnished the furloughed soldiers. They were also to keep their arms and accoutrements as an extra allowance. The furloughs amounted to discharges. Few of the recipients ever returned, and so a great portion of the army was gradually disbanded before the definitive treaty was concluded in September. A remnant of the Continental army remained at West Point under Knox until the British evacuated New York (Nov. 25, 1783). After that event they all received their discharge.

The following shows the number of troops furnished by each State for the Continental army:

New Hampshire	12,947
Massachusetts	67,907
Rhode Island	5,908
Connecticut	31,939
New York	17,781
New Jersey	10,726
Pennsylvania	25,678
Delaware	2,386
Maryland	13,912
Virginia	26,678
North Carolina	7,263
South Carolina	6,417
Georgia	2,679
Total	231,771

The Army in 1808–15.—Jefferson's policy had always been to keep the army and navy as small and inexpensive as possible. The army was reduced to a mere frontier guard against the Indians. In 1808 the aspect of international affairs was such as to demand an increase of the military strength of the republic, and the President asked Congress to augment the number and efficiency of the regular army. They did so, though the measure was strongly opposed by the Federalists. There was a rising war-spirit in the land. A bill to raise seven new regiments was passed by a vote in the House of ninety-eight to sixteen. Other provisions for war followed. The sum of $1,000,000 was placed at the disposal of the President for the erection of coast and harbor de-

fences. Another sum of $300,000 was appropriated for the purchase of arms, and $150,000 for saltpetre to make gunpowder. The President was also authorized to call upon the governors of the several States to form an army, in the aggregate, of 100,000 militia, to be immediately organized, equipped, and "held in readiness to march at a moment's warning" when called for by the chief magistrate—in other words, 100,000 minute-men. The President was authorized to construct arsenals and armories at his discretion; and $200,000 were placed at his disposal for providing equipments for the whole body of the militia of the republic. About $1,000,000 were appropriated to pay the first year's expenses of the seven new regiments. Altogether the government appropriated in 1808 about $5,000,000 for war purposes. Efforts to increase the navy failed. Men were needed for the additional 188 gunboats, the construction of which was authorized in December, 1807. Nothing was done until January, 1809, when the President was authorized to equip three frigates and a sloop-of-war.

In organizing the military forces for war in 1812 the following appointments were made: Henry Dearborn, a soldier of the Revolution, collector of the port of Boston, late Secretary of War, and then sixty years of age, was appointed (February, 1812) first major-general, or acting commander-in-chief of the armies in the field, having the Northern Department under his immediate control. Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, also a soldier of the Revolution, was appointed (March, 1812) second major-general, and placed in command of the Southern Department. Joseph Bloomfield (governor of New Jersey), James Winchester (of Tennessee), John P. Boyd (of Massachusetts), and William Hull (then governor of the Territory of Michigan) were commissioned (April 8, 1812) brigadier-generals. The same commission was given (June) to Thomas Flournoy, of Georgia. John Armstrong, of New York, was also commissioned (July 4) a brigadier-general to fill a vacancy caused by the recent death of Gen. Peter Gansevoort. This was soon followed (July 8) by a like commission for John Chandler, of Maine. Morgan Lewis, of New York, was appointed quartermaster-general (April 3), and Alexander Smyth, of Virginia, was made inspector-general (March 30)—each bearing the commission of a brigadier-general. Thomas Cushing, of Massachusetts, was appointed adjutant-general with the rank of brigadier-general. James Wilkinson, of Maryland, the senior brigadier-general in the army, was sent to New Orleans to relieve Wade Hampton (then a brigadier-general), who was a meritorious subaltern officer in South Carolina during the Revolution. Alexander Macomb of the engineers—one of the first graduates of the United States Military Academy—was promoted to colonel, and Winfield Scott, Edward Pendleton Gaines, and Eleazer W. Ripley were commissioned colonels.

In the summer of 1812, Gen. Joseph Bloomfield was sent to Lake Champlain with several regiments, and on September 1 he had gathered at Plattsburg about 8,000 men — regulars, volunteers, and militia—besides small advanced parties at Chazy and Champlain. General Dearborn took direct command of this army soon afterwards, and about the middle of November he made an unsuccessful attempt to invade Canada. No other special military movements occurred in that quarter until the next year. Gen. Wade Hampton succeeded Bloomfield in command on Lake Champlain, and in the summer of 1813 he was at the head of 4,000 men, with his headquarters at Burlington, Vt. This force composed the right wing of the Army of the North, of which General Wilkinson was commander-in-chief. There was such personal enmity between these two commanders that the public service was greatly injured thereby. The Secretary of War (Armstrong) was preparing to invade Canada by way of the St. Lawrence, and, fearing the effects of this enmity, transferred the headquarters of the War Department to Sackett's Harbor, at the east end of Lake Ontario, that he might promote harmony between these testy old generals. In arranging for the expedition down the St. Lawrence, Armstrong directed Hampton to penetrate Canada towards Montreal by way of the Sorel River. Instead of obeying the order, Hampton marched his troops to the Chateaugay River, and at Chateaugay Four Corners he tarried twenty-six days awaiting orders.

Finally he was ordered to descend the Chateaugay and meet Wilkinson at its mouth. He moved forward late in October, when he was confronted by Lieutenant-Colonel De Salaberry, near the junction of Outard Creek and the Chateaugay, where Hampton encamped and was overtaken by his artillery. De Salaberry was encamped with a force about 1,000 strong, and Sir George Prevost and General De Watteville were within bugle-call. Hampton resolved to dislodge De Salaberry, and sent a force under Col. Robert Purdy on the evening of Oct. 25 to force a ford and fall upon the British rear. Purdy lost his way in a hemlock swamp.

Meanwhile Hampton put 3,500 of his men in motion under Gen. George Izard, who moved to the attack at two o'clock in the afternoon. De Salaberry came out with a few Canadians and Indians, but finding overwhelming numbers in front of him he fell back to his intrenched camp. Firing was now heard on the other side of the river. Purdy, who had neglected to post pickets, had been surprised, his troops flying to the river. Several of his officers and men swam across, and bore alarming news of a heavy force approaching. Instead of such a force approaching, those who had attacked Purdy had fled at the first fire; and so the belligerents were in the ridiculous predicament of running away from each other. De Salaberry now tried a clever trick. He posted buglers at some distance from each other, and when some concealed provincial militia opened fire almost upon Hampton's flanks, the buglers sounded a charge. Hampton was alarmed, for the position of the buglers indicated an extensive British line, and he supposed a heavy force was about to fall upon his front and flank. He immediately sounded a retreat and withdrew to his old quarters at Chateaugay Four Corners, annoyed all the way by the fire of Canadian militia. There this inglorious campaign ended. The Americans lost in the affair fifteen killed and twenty-three wounded. The British lost in killed, wounded, and missing, twenty-five. "No officer," said a distinguished general of the United States army, "who had any regard for his reputation, would voluntarily acknowledge himself as having been engaged in it." Hampton refused to meet Wilkinson at St. Regis, as the latter had requested after the battle at Chrysler's Field. Wilkinson directed Hampton to join the camp at French Mills. This order, also, he disobeyed, and retired to Plattsburg with his army of 4,000 men.

Army of Occupation, 1845–46.—When the annexation of Texas caused warlike preparations in Mexico, Gen. Zachary Taylor was ordered to proceed to a point near the frontier between the two countries to defend Texas from invasion. Taylor was then in command of the Department of the Southwest. In a letter of instructions from the War Department, he was told, "Texas must be protected from hostile invasion; and for that purpose you will, of course, employ to the utmost extent all the means you possess or can command." He at once repaired to New Orleans with 1,500 men (July, 1845), where he embarked, and early in August arrived at the island of St. Josephs on the Texan coast, whence he sailed for Corpus Christi, near the mouth of the Nueces, where he established his headquarters. There he was soon afterwards reinforced by seven companies of infantry under Major Brown and two volunteer companies under Major Gally. With these forces he remained at Corpus Christi until the next spring, when the camp at that place was broken up (March 8, 1846), and the Army of Occupation proceeded to Point Isabel, nearer the Rio Grande. When approaching Point Isabel, Taylor was met by a deputation of citizens, and presented with a protest, signed by the Prefect of the Northern District of the Department of Tamaulipas, against the presence of his army. But he pressed forward to Point Isabel, whence, with a larger portion of his army, he proceeded to the Rio Grande opposite Matamoras, arriving there on March 29. There he began the erection of defensive works; and so the Army of Occupation in Texas assumed a hostile attitude towards the Mexicans. See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

Army in the Civil War.—When Mr. Lincoln entered upon the duties of President (March 4, 1861) the total regular force of the army was 16,000 men, and these were principally in the Western

States and Territories, guarding the frontier settlers against the Indians. The forts and arsenals on the seaboard, especially within the slave States, were so weakly manned, or not manned at all, that they became an easy prey to the Confederates. The consequence was that they were seized, and when the new administration came into power, of all the fortifications within the slave States only Fort Monroe, in Virginia, and Forts Jefferson, Taylor, and Pickens, on the Gulf coast, remained in possession of the government. The seized forts were sixteen in number. They had cost the government about $6,000,000, and had an aggregate of 1,226 guns. All the arsenals in the cotton-growing States had been seized. Twiggs had surrendered a portion of the National army in Texas. The army had been put so far out of reach, and the forts and arsenals in the North had been so stripped of defenders, by Floyd, Buchanan's Secretary of War, that the government was threatened with sudden paralysis.

On the day after the battle of BULL RUN (*q. v.*), General McClellan, then in western Virginia, was summoned to Washington and placed in charge of the shattered army there. The Departments of Washington and of Northeastern Virginia were created and placed under the command of McClellan. The Department of the Shenandoah was also created, and Gen. N. P. Banks was placed in command of it, relieving Major-General Patterson. McClellan turned over the command of the troops in western Virginia to General Rosecrans, and on July 27 he entered with zeal upon the duty of reorganizing the army in the vicinity of the national capital. He brought to the service youth, a spotless moral character, robust health, untiring industry, a good theoretical military education, the prestige of recent success, and the unlimited confidence of the loyal people. Having laid a broad moral foundation for an efficient army organization, he proceeded with skill and vigor to mould his material into perfect symmetry. So energetically was this done that at the end of fifty days an army of at least 100,000 men, well organized, officered, equipped, and disciplined, were in and around Washington. At that time the entire force in his department included 152,000 soldiers. By March 1, 1862, that number was so increased that when, at that time, the forces were put in motion, having been thoroughly drilled and disciplined, the grand total of the army was 222,000, of which number about 30,000 were sick or absent. It was called the "Grand Army of the Potomac."

General McClellan left Washington for Fort Monroe, April 1, 1862, with the greater part of the Army of the Potomac, leaving for the defence of the capital and other service more remote 75,000. Very soon there were 120,000 men at Fort Monroe, exclusive of the forces of General Wool, the commander there. A large portion of these moved up the Peninsula in two columns, one, under Gen. S. P. Heintzelman, marching near the York River; the other, under General Keyes, near the James River. A comparatively small Confederate force, under Gen. J. B. Magruder, formed a fortified line across the Peninsula in the pathway of the Nationals. The left of this line was at Yorktown, and the right on the Warwick River, that falls into the James. In front of this line McClellan's continually augmenting army remained a month, engaged in the tedious operations of a regular siege, under the direction of Gen. Fitz-John Porter, skirmishing frequently, and, on one occasion, making a reconnoissance in force that was disastrous to the Nationals. On May 3, Magruder, who had resorted to all sorts of tricks to deceive and mislead the Nationals, wrote to Cooper, of the Confederate War Department: "Thus, with 5,000 men, exclusive of the garrison, we stopped and held in check over 100,000 of the enemy." McClellan now began those approaches towards Richmond which resulted in the Seven Days' battles near that city.

When the battle of FREDERICKSBURG (*q. v.*) had ended, there was much feeling against General Burnside on the part of the officers of the Army of the Potomac who had participated in it. An order received by Burnside, just as he was preparing for other active operations, from the President (Dec. 30, 1862), directing him not to enter upon further operations without his (the President's) knowledge, satisfied him that enemies in his own army were at work against him. Burnside hast-

ened to Washington for an explanation, when he learned that general officers of his army had declared that such was the feeling among the troops against him that the safety of the army would be imperilled by a movement under his direction. He believed there was a secret conspiracy among the officers for his removal. He returned to the army, determined to do what he might to retrieve the disaster at Fredericksburg, but was soon induced to return to Washington, bearing a general order for the instant dismissal or relief from duty of several of the generals of the Army of the Potomac, whom he charged with "fomenting discontent in the army." Generals Hooker, Brooks, and Newton were designated for instant dismissal; and Generals Franklin, W. F. Smith, Cochran, and Ferrero, and Lieut.-Col. J. H. Taylor were to be relieved from duty in that army. Generals Franklin and Smith had written a joint letter to the President (Dec. 21) expressing their opinion that Burnside's plan of operations could not succeed, and substantially recommending that McClellan should be reinstated in command. Burnside was competent to issue the order for such dismissal and relief on his own responsibility, but he submitted it to the President. The latter was perplexed. He talked with Burnside as a friend and brother, and it was finally arranged that the general should be relieved of the command of the **Army** of the Potomac and await orders for further service.

Maj.-Gen. Joseph Hooker was appointed Burnside's successor. In making this appointment the President wrote a fatherly letter to Hooker, in which, after speaking of his many excellent qualities as a soldier, he referred to his (Hooker) having been, with others, to blame for too freely criticising the military conduct of Burnside, and so doing a great wrong to him. He reminded Hooker that he would now be open to such criticism, but that he (Lincoln) would do what he might to suppress it, for little good could be got out of an army in which such a spirit prevailed. The army was then lying, weak and demoralized, at Falmouth, opposite Fredericksburg. From January until April (1863) Hooker was engaged in preparing for a vigorous summer campaign. His forces remained in comparative quiet for about three months, during which time they were reorganized and disciplined, and at the close of April his army numbered 100,000 effective men. General Lee's army, on the other side of the river, had been divided, a large force, under General Longstreet, having been required to watch the movements of the Nationals under General Peck in the vicinity of Norfolk. Lee had in hand about 60,000 well-drilled troops, lying behind strong intrenchments extending 25 miles along the line of the Rappahannock River. Hooker had made important changes in the organization of the army, and in the various staff departments; and the cavalry, hitherto scattered among the three grand divisions into which the six corps of the army had been consolidated—two corps in each—and without organization as a corps, were now consolidated and soon placed in a state of greater efficiency. To improve them he had sent them out upon raids within the Confederate lines, and for several weeks the region between Bull Run and the Rapidan was the theatre of many daring cavalry exploits.

To give more efficiency to the troops covering Washington in 1862, they were formed into an organization called the "Army of Virginia," and placed under the command of Maj.-Gen. John Pope. General Halleck was then general-in-chief of all the armies, with his headquarters at Washington. The corps of the new army were commanded, respectively, by Generals McDowell, Banks, and Sigel. When McClellan had retreated to Harrison's Landing and the Confederate leaders were satisfied that no further attempts would then be made to take Richmond, they ordered Lee to make a dash on Washington. Hearing of this, Halleck ordered Pope, in the middle of July, to meet the intended invaders at the outset of their raid. General Rufus King led a troop of cavalry that destroyed railroads and bridges to within 30 or 40 miles of Richmond. Pope's troops were posted along a line from Fredericksburg to Winchester and Harper's Ferry, and were charged with the threefold duty of covering the national capital, guarding the valley entrance into Maryland in the rear of Washington, and threatening Richmond from

the north as a diversion in favor of McClellan.

When General Grant began his march against Richmond (May, 1864), Gen. Benjamin F. Butler was in command of the Army of the James, and was directed to co-operate with the Army of the Potomac. Butler prepared to make a vigorous movement against Richmond from the south, while Grant moved from the north. Butler's effective force was about 40,000 men when he was ordered to advance. It was composed chiefly of the 18th Army Corps, commanded by Gen. W. F. Smith, and the 10th Corps, under Gen. Q. A. Gillmore, who arrived at Fort Monroe May 3. Butler successfully deceived the Confederates as to his real intentions by making a demonstration towards Richmond by way of the York River and the Peninsula, along McClellan's line of march. On the night of May 4, Butler's army was embarked on transports and conveyed around to Hampton Roads; and at dawn the next morning 35,000 troops, accompanied by a squadron of war vessels under Admiral Lee, were rapidly ascending the James towards City Point, at the mouth of the Appomattox. At the same time, Gen. A. V. Kautz, with 3,000 cavalry, moving swiftly from Suffolk, south of the James, struck the Weldon Railway south of Petersburg, and burned a bridge over Stony Creek, while Col. R. M. West, with 1,800 cavalry (mostly colored men), moved from Williamsburg up the north bank of the James, keeping abreast of the grand flotilla. The bewildered Confederates made no serious opposition to these movements. A division of National troops took quiet possession of City Point (May 5) and the war vessels took a position above the mouth of the Appomattox. At the same time a heavy force landed on a triangular piece of land between the James and Appomattox, called Bermuda Hundred, and there established an intrenched camp. In the space of twenty-four hours, Butler gained an important foothold within 15 miles of Richmond in a straight line, and only about 8 miles from Petersburg. The movement produced great consternation at Richmond; but before Petersburg could be seriously threatened by Butler, Beauregard was there with troops from Charleston.

TROOPS FURNISHED THE GOVERNMENT DURING THE CIVIL WAR FROM 1861 TO 1865.

Under call of April 15, 1861, for 75,000 men for three months...	91,816
Under call of May 3, 1861, for 500,000 men for six months, one year, two years, three years.	700,680
Under call of July 2, 1862, for 300,000 men for three years.....	421,465
Under call of Aug. 4, 1862, for 300,000 men for nine months.....	87,588
Under proclamation, June 15, 1863, men for six months.....	16,361
Under call of Oct. 17, 1863 (including drafted men of 1863), and call of Feb. 1, 1864, for 500,000 for three years.....	317,092
Under call of March 14, 1864, for 200,000 for three years.....	259,515
Militia for 100 days, mustered in between April 23 and July 18, 1864	83,612
Under call of July 18, 1864, for 500,000 (reduced by excess credits of previous calls) for one year, two years, three years, and four years	385,163
Under call of Dec. 19, 1864, for 300,000 men for one year, two years, three years, four years...	211,752
Other troops furnished by States and Territories which, after first call, had not been called upon for quotas when general call for troops was made.....	182,357
By special authority granted May and June, 1862, New York, Illinois, and Indiana furnished for three months	15,007
Total	2,772,408
Number of men who paid commutation	86,724
Grand total.....	2,859,132
Aggregate reduced to a three years' standard	2,320,272

ACTUAL STRENGTH OF THE ARMY BETWEEN JAN. 1, 1860, AND MAY 1, 1865.

Date.	Regulars.	Volunteers.	Total.
Jan. 1, 1860...	16,435	——	16,435
Jan. 1, 1861...	16,367	——	16,367
July 1, 1861...	16,422	170,329	186,751
Jan. 1, 1862...	22,425	553,492	575,917
March 31, 1862...	23,308	613,818	637,126
Jan. 1, 1863...	25,463	892,728	918,191
Jan. 1, 1864...	24,636	836,101	860,737
Jan. 1, 1865...	22,019	937,441	959,460
March 31, 1865...	21,669	958,417	980,086
May 1, 1865.....			1,000,516

Disbanding of the Union Armies.—The soldiers of the great armies that confronted Lee and Johnston in Virginia and North Carolina, and conquered them, were marched to the vicinity of the national capital, and during two memorable days

(May 22 and 23, 1865), moved through that city, with tens of thousands of moistened eyes gazing upon them, and passed in review before the chief magistrate of the nation and his ministers. Then began the work of disbanding the armies by mustering out of service officers and men. On June 2 Lieutenant-General Grant, the general-in-chief of the National armies, issued the following address to them: "Soldiers of the Armies of the United States,—By your patriotic devotion to your country in the hour of danger and alarm, your magnificent fighting, bravery, and endurance, you have maintained the supremacy of the Union and the Constitution, overthrown all armed opposition to the enforcement of the laws and of the proclamation forever abolishing slavery—the cause and pretext of the rebellion—and opened the way to the rightful authorities to restore order and inaugurate peace on a permanent and enduring basis on every foot of American soil. Your marches, sieges, and battles, in distance, duration, resolution, and brilliancy of results, dim the lustre of the world's past military achievements, and will be the patriot's precedent in defence of liberty and right in all time to come. In obedience to your country's call, you left your homes and families, and volunteered in her defence. Victory has crowned your valor and secured the purpose of your patriotic hearts; and with the gratitude of your countrymen and the highest honors a great and free nation can accord, you will soon be permitted to return to your homes and families, conscious of having discharged the highest duty of American citizens. To achieve these glorious triumphs and secure to yourselves, your fellow-countrymen and posterity the blessings of free institutions, tens of thousands of your gallant comrades have fallen, and sealed the priceless legacy with their blood. The graves of these a grateful nation bedews with tears, honors their memory, and will ever cherish and support their stricken families." The disbanding of this army went steadily on from June 1, and by the middle of autumn 786,000 officers and men were mustered out of the service. The wonderful spectacle was exhibited of vast armies of men, surrounded by all the paraphernalia of war, transformed in the space of 150 days into a vast army of citizens, engaged in the pursuits of peace. See CIVIL WAR, THE; LEE, ROBERT EDWARD.

Army War College. A department of the United States military educational establishment, authorized by Congress in 1900, Brig.-Gen. William Ludlow being the chief of the board that drafted the regulations. The object is to unify the systems of instruction at the four existing service institutions; to develop these systems; and to give opportunity for the most advanced professional study of military problems. The officers of the college exercise supervision over the course of study in each of the service schools, and over all civil institutions to which the government details an officer for military instruction. The faculty of the college study the military organizations of the United States, with regard to a complete understanding of its efficiency, and constitute an advisory board to which the Secretary of War can turn at any time for recommendations as to any point in the mechanism of the whole military service.

Arnold, ABRAHAM KERNS, military officer; born in Bedford, Pa., March 24, 1837; graduated at the United States Military Academy and brevetted a second lieutenant in 1859; colonel of the 8th Cavalry in 1891. He served through the Civil War with distinction, and was awarded a congressional medal of honor for exceptional bravery in the engagement at Davenport Bridge, North Anna River, Va., May 18, 1864. After the Civil War he served in the Indian country. On May 4, 1898, he was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, and served through the American-Spanish War. He was discharged from the volunteer service May 12, 1899. He died Nov. 23, 1901.

Arnold, BENEDICT, pioneer; born in England, Dec. 21, 1615; emigrated to Providence, R. I., about 1635; president of the colony, 1657; assistant in 1660; again president in 1662. Under the royal charter he was elected governor of Rhode Island five times. He died June 20, 1678.

Arnold, BENEDICT, military officer; born in Norwich, Conn., Jan. 14, 1741. As a boy he was bold, mischievous, and quarrelsome. Apprenticed to an apothecary, he ran away, enlisted as a soldier, but de-

serted. For four years (1763–67) he was a bookseller and druggist in New Haven, Conn., and was afterwards master and supercargo of a vessel trading to the West

BIRTHPLACE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

Indies. Immediately after the affair at Lexington, he raised a company of volunteers and marched to Cambridge. There he proposed to the Massachusetts Committee of Safety an expedition against Fort Ticonderoga, and was commissioned a colonel. Finding a small force, under Colonels Easton, Brown, and Allen, on the same errand when he reached western Massachusetts, he joined them without command.

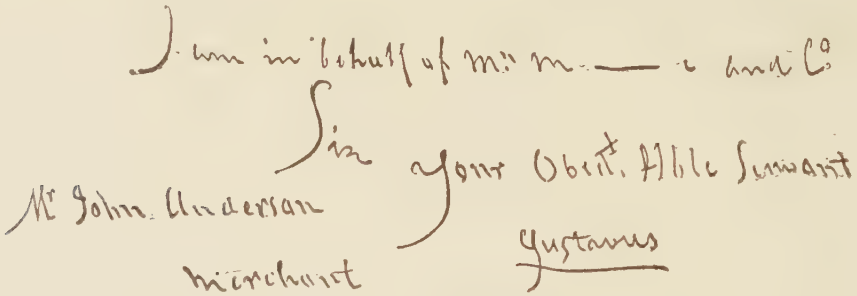
Returning to Cambridge, he was placed at the head of an expedition for the capture of Quebec. He left Cambridge with a little more than 1,000 men, composed of New England musketeers and riflemen from Virginia and Pennsylvania, the latter under Capt. Daniel Morgan. He sailed from Newburyport for the Kennebec in the middle of September, 1775. They rendezvoused at Fort Western, on the Kennebec River, opposite the site of the present city of Augusta, Me., and on the verge of a wilderness uninhabited except by a few Indian hunters. At Norridgewock Falls their severe labors began. Their bateaux were drawn by oxen, and their provisions were carried on their backs around the falls—a wearisome task often repeated as they pressed towards the head-waters of the Kennebec, often wading and pushing their bateaux against swift currents. At length they left that stream and traversed tangled ravines, craggy knolls, and deep morasses, until they reached the Dead River. The stream flowed placidly on the summit of the water-shed between the St. Lawrence and the Atlantic, and they moved pleasantly over its bosom until they encamped at the foot of a high mountain capped with snow. Sickness and desertion now began to reduce the number of effective men. October was passing away. Keen blasts came from the north. A heavy rain fell, and the water, rushing from the hills, suddenly filled the Dead River to its brim and overflowed its banks. Some of the boats were overturned and much provision was lost or spoiled. Food for only twelve days remained. A detachment was sent to get a supply, but did not return. The floods began to freeze and the morasses became almost impassable. Through ice-cold water they were frequently compelled to wade; even two women, wives of soldiers, endured this hardship. At length they reached the Chaudière River, that empties into the St. Lawrence. Starvation threatened. Seventy miles lay between them and Sertigan, the nearest French settlement. Leaving his troops on the banks of the upper Chaudière, Arnold and fifty-five men started down the river for Sertigan to obtain food. Two or three boats had been wrecked just before their departure, and much of their scanty supply of food was lost. Arnold and his party reached the settlement. Indians were sent back with provisions and as guides for the rest of the troops to the settlement. When the forces were joined they moved towards the St. Lawrence; and on Nov. 9, in a heavy snow-storm, they suddenly appeared at Point Levi, opposite Quebec, only 750 in number. It

ARNOLD'S ROUTE THROUGH THE WILDERNESS.

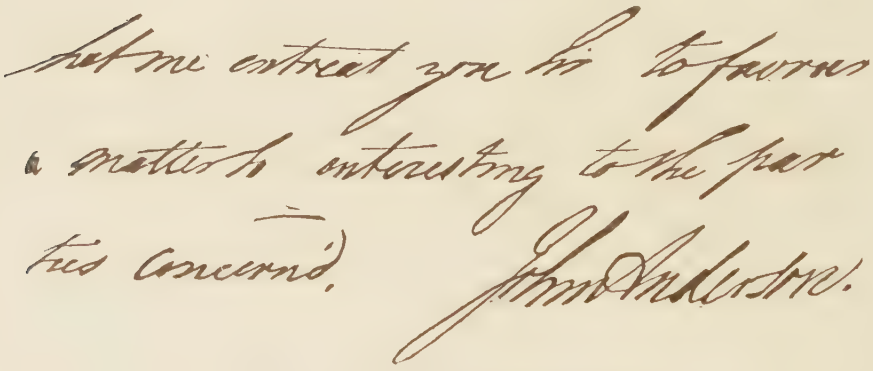
was almost two months after they left Cambridge before they reached the St. Lawrence. Their sufferings from cold and hunger had been extreme. At one time they had attempted to make broth of boiled deer-skin moccasins to sustain life, and a dog belonging to Henry (afterwards General) Dearborn made savory food for them. In this expedition were men who afterwards became famous in American history—Aaron Burr, R. J. Meigs, Henry Dearborn, Daniel Morgan, and others.

Arnold assisted Montgomery in the siege of Quebec, and was there severely wounded in the leg. Montgomery was killed, and Arnold was promoted to brigadier-general (Jan. 10, 1776), and took command of the remnant of the American troops in the vicinity of Quebec. Succeeded by Wooster, he went up Lake Champlain to Ticonderoga, where he was placed in command of an armed flotilla on the lake. With these vessels he had disastrous battles (Oct. 11 and 13, 1776) with British vessels built at St. Johns. Arnold was deeply offended by the appointment, by Congress, early in 1777, of five of his juniors to the rank of major-general. He received the same appointment soon afterwards (Feb. 7, 1777), but the affront left an irritating thorn in his bosom, and he was continually in trouble with his fellow-officers, for his temper was violent and he was not upright in pecuniary transactions. General Schuyler admired him for his bravery, and was his abiding friend until his treason. He successfully went to the relief of Fort Schuyler on the upper Mohawk (August, 1777), with 800 volunteers; and in September and October following he was chiefly instrumental in the defeat of Burgoyne, in spite of General Gates. There he was again severely wounded in the same leg, and was disabled several months. When the British evacuated Philadelphia (June, 1778) Arnold was appointed commander at Philadelphia, where he married the daughter of a leading Tory (Edward Shippen), lived extravagantly, became involved in debt, was accused of dishonest official conduct, and plotted his treason against his country. To meet the demands of importunate creditors, he engaged in fraudulent transactions, for which his official position gave him facilities, and charges of dishonesty and malpractice in office were preferred against him before the Continental Congress. A tribunal before which he was tried convicted him, but sentenced him to a reprimand only by the commander-in-chief. Washington performed the duty with great delicacy, but the disgrace aroused in the bosom of Arnold a fierce spirit of revenge. He resolved to betray his country, and, making treasonable overtures to Sir Henry Clinton, kept up a correspondence on the subject for a long time with Maj. John André (*q. v.*), the adjutant-general of the British army. This correspondence was carried on mutually under assumed names, and on the part of Arnold in a disguised hand. Feigning great patriotism and a desire to serve his country better, he asked for, and, through the recommendation of General Schuyler and others, obtained the command of the important post of West Point and its dependencies in the Hudson Highlands. He arranged with Major André to surrender that post into the hands of a British force which Sir Henry might send up the Hudson. For this service he was to receive the commission of a brigadier-general in the British army and nearly $50,000 in gold. He made his headquarters at the house of Beverly Robinson, a Tory, opposite West Point, and the time chosen for the consummation of the treason was when Washington should be absent at a conference with Rochambeau at Hartford. Arnold and André had negotiated in writing; the former wished a personal interview, and arrangements were made for it. André went up the Hudson in the British sloop-of-war *Vulture* to Teller's (afterwards Croton) Point, from which he was taken in the night in a small boat to a secluded spot near Haverstraw, on the west side of the river, where, in bushes, he met Arnold for the first time. Before they parted (Sept. 22, 1780) the whole matter was arranged: Clinton was to sail up the river with a strong force, and, after a show of resistance, Arnold was to surrender West Point and its dependencies into his hands. But all did not work well. The *Vulture* was driven from her anchorage by some Americans with a cannon on Teller's Point, and when André, with Arnold, at Joshua H. Smith's house, above

Haverstraw, looked for her in the early morning she had disappeared from sight. He had expected to return to the *Vulture* after the conference was over; now he was compelled to cross the river at King's Ferry and return to New York by land.



FAC-SIMILE OF ARNOLD'S DISGUISED HANDWRITING.



FAC-SIMILE OF A PORTION OF ONE OF ANDRÉ'S LETTERS.

He left his uniform, and, disguised in citizen's dress, he crossed the river towards evening with a single attendant, passed through the American works at Verplanck's Point without suspicion, spent the night not far from the Croton River, and the next morning journeyed over the Neutral Ground on horseback, with a full expectation of entering New York before night. Arnold had furnished him with papers revealing the condition of the highland stronghold. At Tarrytown, 27 miles from the city, he was stopped (Sept. 23) and searched by three young militiamen, who, finding those papers concealed under the feet of André in his boot, took him to the nearest American post. The commander (Colonel Jameson) did not seem to comprehend the matter, and unwisely allowed André (who bore a pass from Arnold in which he was called "John Anderson") to send a letter to Arnold telling him of his detention. Washington returned from Hartford sooner than he expected. He rode over from Fishkill towards Arnold's quarters early in the morning. Two of his military family (Hamilton and Lafayette) went forward to breakfast with Arnold, while Washington tarried to inspect a battery. While they were at breakfast André's letter was handed to Arnold. With perfect self-possession he asked to be excused, went to his wife's room, bade her farewell, and, mounting the horse of one of his aides that stood saddled at the door, rode swiftly to the river shore. There he entered his barge, and, promising the oarsmen a handsome reward if they would row the boat swiftly, escaped to the *Vulture*.

Soon after his flight to the British army, Arnold published an *Address to the Inhabitants of America*, in which he attempted to gloss over his treason by abusing the Congress and the French alliance. He also published a *Proclamation to the Officers and Soldiers of the Continental Army*, in which as an inducement to desert he offered $15 to every private, and to the officers commissions in the British

BENEDICT ARNOLD.

army according to their rank and the number of men they might bring with them. Virginia had generously sent her best troops to assist the Carolinians in their attempt to throw off the yoke laid upon their necks by Cornwallis. To call these troops back from Greene's army, the British, at the close of 1780, sent Arnold into Virginia with a marauding party of British and Tories, about 1,600 in number, with seven armed vessels, to plunder, distress, and alarm the people of that State. In no other way could Arnold be employed by his master, for respectable British officers refused to serve with him in the army. He arrived at Hampton Roads on Dec. 30, 1780. Anxious to distinguish himself, he immediately pushed up the James River as far as Richmond, when, after destroying a large quantity of public and private stores there and in the vicinity (Jan. 5, 1781), he withdrew to Portsmouth, opposite Norfolk, and made that place his headquarters for a while. Earnest efforts were made to capture the marauder, but in vain. Jefferson offered $25,000 for his arrest, and Washington detached Lafayette, with 1,200 men, drawn from the New England and New Jersey levies, who marched to Virginia for that purpose and to protect the State.

A portion of the French fleet went from Rhode Island (March 8) to shut Arnold up in the Elizabeth River and assist in capturing him. Steuben, who was recruiting for Greene's army in Virginia, also watched him. The effort failed, for Arnold was vigilant and extremely cautious. He knew what would be his fate if caught. "What would the Americans do with me, if they should catch me?" Arnold inquired of a young prisoner. "They would cut off and bury with military honors your leg that was wounded at Saratoga, and hang the rest of you," replied the young American soldier. General Phillips joined Arnold (March 26) with more than 2,000 men, and took the chief command. The traitor accompanied him on another expedition up the James River, in April, and then returned to New York, for Cornwallis, who came into Virginia from North Carolina, refused to serve with him.

When Sir Henry Clinton found that the allied armies were actually going to Virginia, he tried to alarm Washington by threats of marauding expeditions. He sent Arnold, with a band of regulars and Tories, to commit atrocities in Connecticut. Arnold crossed the Sound, from Long Island, and on Sept. 6, 1781, landed his troops on each side of the Thames, below New London. He plundered and burned that town, and a part of his force took Fort Griswold, opposite, by storm. It was gallantly defended by Colonel Ledyard and a garrison of 150 poorly armed militiamen. Only six of the garrison were killed in the conflict, but after the surrender the British officer in command (Colonel Eyre) murdered Ledyard with his sword, and, refusing to give quarter to the garrison, seventy-three were massacred.

Then the wounded were placed in a baggage-wagon and sent down the slope towards the river, with the intention of drowning them in the stream at its foot, but the vehicle was caught by an apple-tree. The cries of the sufferers could be heard above the crackling of the burning town by persons across the river. With this atrocious expedition the name of Benedict Arnold disappears from the records of our history.

Arnold went to England at the close of the war, where he was despised and shunned by all honorable men. He was afterwards a resident of St. John, New Brunswick, engaged chiefly in trade and navigation, but was very unpopular. He was there hung in effigy. His son, James Robertson (an infant at the time of his father's treason), became a lieutenant-general in the British army. Arnold's second wife, whom he married when she was not quite eighteen years of age, survived him just three years. Arnold died in obscurity, but in comfortable pecuniary circumstances, in Gloucester Place, London, June 14, 1801.

Arnold, FRANZ. See LIEBER, FRANCIS.

Arnold, RICHARD, military officer; born in Providence, R. I., April 12, 1828; was graduated at West Point in 1850. He served in Florida, California, at the battle of Bull Run, on the Peninsula, and was made chief of artillery of Banks's expedition in November, 1862. At Port Hudson and in the Red River campaign he rendered important service; also in the capture of Fort Fisher, and of Fort Morgan, near Mobile. He was brevetted major-general United States army in 1866. He died on Governor's Island, New York, Nov. 8, 1882.

Arnold, SAMUEL GREENE, legislator and author; born in Providence, R. I., April 12, 1821. He was graduated at Brown University in 1841. After extensive travel in Europe, the East, and South America, he became, in 1852, lieutenant-governor of Rhode Island. In 1861 he took the field in command of a battery of artillery. He was lieutenant-governor, 1861–62, and United States Senator in 1863. He was the author of a *History of Rhode Island*. He died in Providence, Feb. 12, 1880.

Aroostook Disturbance. In 1837–39 the unsettled boundary between Maine and New Brunswick nearly led to active hostilities on the Aroostook River. Maine sent armed men to erect fortifications, and Congress authorized the President to resist the encroachments of the British. General Scott arranged a truce and joint occupation. The boundaries were finally adjusted by treaty, Aug. 9, 1842. See ASHBURTON, LORD; MAINE; WEBSTER, DANIEL.

Arroyo, a seaport in the district of Guayama, in the southeastern part of the island of Porto Rico. It is on a bay of the same name, and has a population of about 1,200. Its trade with the United States prior to the war with Spain was annually from 7,000 to 10,000 hogsheads of sugar, 2,000 to 5,000 casks of molasses, and 50 to 150 casks and barrels of bay-rum.

Arsenals. In 1901, arsenals, armories, and ordnance depots were established at the following places: *Arsenals*—Allegheny, Pa.; Augusta, Ga.; Benicia, Cal.; Columbia, Tenn.; Fort Monroe, Va.; Frankford, Pa.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Kennebec (Augusta), Me.; New York (Governor's Island), N. Y.; Rock Island, Ill.; San Antonio, Tex.; Watertown, Mass.; and Watervliet, N. Y. *Armory*—Springfield, Mass. *Powder Depots*—St. Louis, Mo., and Dover, N. J. *Ordnance Proving Ground*—Sandy Hook (Fort Hancock), N. J.

Art, METROPOLITAN MUSEUM OF, New York City, founded by the action of a public meeting held at the Academy of Music in November, 1869. In April, 1870, a charter was obtained from the legislature "for the purpose of establishing a museum and library of art; of encouraging and developing the study of the fine arts; of the application of art to manufacture and to practical life; of advancing the general knowledge of kindred subjects; and to that end of furnishing popular instruction and recreation." Later the legislature authorized the Park Department to erect a two-story fire-proof building for its use in Central Park, the cost not to exceed $500,000, and also to set apart a tract of eighteen and a half acres in the eastern part of the Park between Eightieth and Eighty-fifth streets. The Museum was formally opened by the President of the United States, March 30, 1880. An addi-

tion on the south side and one on the north were made in 1894, increasing the total ground area from 233 by 104 feet to 233 by 344 feet. In 1897 a further exsion was authorized, for which an appropriation of $1,000,000 was made.

Artesian Wells, wells formed by boring through upper soil to strata containing water which has percolated from a higher level, and which rises to that level through the boring-tube. The following are some of the deepest wells in the United States:

Location.	Depth.	Bored.	Remarks.
St. Louis, Mo.	2,197 ft.	1849-52	108,000 gallons daily. Salty.
St. Louis, Mo.	3,843 "	1866-70	Does not rise to the surface. Salty.
Louisville, Ky.	2,086 "	1856-57	330,000 gallons daily. Mineral.
Columbus, O.	2,775½ "	.....	Water saline, 91° Fahr.; no force.
Charleston, S. C.	1,250 "	1848	28,800 gallons daily. Saline.

South Dakota, sometimes called the "Artesian State," has many powerful artesian wells in the valley of the James River, from 800 to 1,600 feet deep, affording a bountiful supply of pure water. The water from great depths is always warmer than at the surface.

One of the most remarkable attempts to sink an artesian well in the United States was made in Galveston, Tex. A depth of 3,070 feet and 9 inches was reached, without penetrating any rock or finding water. After the contractors had reached a depth of 3,000 feet, which was the limit stipulated in their contract, they were paid $76,000, and the work was officially abandoned in 1892, the contractors carrying the work a few feet further as a matter of curiosity. See IRRIGATION.

ARTHUR, CHESTER ALAN

Arthur, CHESTER ALAN, twenty-first President of the United States, from Sept. 19, 1881, to March 4, 1885; Republican; born in Fairfield, Vt., Oct. 5, 1830; was graduated at Union College in 1848; studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1854; and became a successful practitioner. He gained much celebrity in a suit which involved the freedom of some slaves, known as the "Lemmon case." He procured the admission of colored persons to the street-cars of New York City by gaining a suit against a railway company in 1856. Mr. Arthur did efficient service during the Civil War as quartermaster-general of the State of New York. In 1872 he was appointed collector of the port of New York, and was removed in 1878. In 1880, he was elected Vice-President, and on the death of President Garfield, Sept. 19, 1881, he became President. He died in New York City, Nov. 18, 1886.

Veto of Chinese Immigration Bill.—On April 4, 1882, President Arthur sent the following veto message to the Senate:

To the Senate,—After a careful consideration of Senate Bill No. 71, entitled "An act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese," I herewith return it to the Senate, in which it originated, with my objections to its passage.

A nation is justified in repudiating its treaty obligations only when they are in conflict with great paramount interests. Even then all possible reasonable means for modifying or changing these obligations by mutual agreement should be exhausted before resorting to the supreme right of refusal to comply with them.

These rules have governed the United States in their past intercourse with other powers, as one of the family of nations. I am persuaded that if Congress can feel that this act violates the faith of the nation as pledged to China, it will concur with me in rejecting this particular mode of regulating Chinese immigration, and will endeavor to find another which shall meet the expectations of the people of the United States without coming in conflict with the rights of China.

The present treaty relations between that power and the United States spring from an antagonism which arose between

our paramount domestic interests and our previous relations. The treaty commonly known as the Burlingame treaty conferred upon Chinese subjects the right of voluntary emigration to the United States for the purposes of curiosity or trade, or as permanent residents, and was in all respects reciprocal as to citizens of the United States in China. It gave to the voluntary emigrant coming to the United States the right to travel there or reside there, with all the privileges, immunities, or exemptions enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation.

Under the operation of this treaty it was found that the institutions of the United States and the character of its people and their means of obtaining a livelihood might be seriously affected by the unrestricted introduction of Chinese labor. Congress attempted to alleviate this condition by legislation, but the act which it passed proved to be in violation of our treaty obligations, and, being returned by the President with his objections, failed to become a law.

Diplomatic relief was then sought. A new treaty was concluded with China. Without abrogating the Burlingame treaty, it was agreed to modify it so far that the government of the United States might regulate, limit, or suspend the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, but that it should not absolutely prohibit them, and that the limitation or suspension should be reasonable, and should apply only to Chinese who might go to the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitations. This treaty is unilateral, not reciprocal. It is a concession from China to the United States in limitation of the rights which she was enjoying under the Burlingame treaty. It leaves us by our own act to determine when and how we will enforce those limitations. China may, therefore, fairly have a right to expect that in enforcing them we will take good care not to overstep the grant, and to take more than has been conceded to us.

It is but a year since this new treaty under the operation of the Constitution, became part of the supreme law of the land; and the present act is the first attempt to exercise the more enlarged powers which it relinquishes to the United States. In its first article, the United States is empowered to decide whether the coming of Chinese laborers to the United States, or their residence therein, affects or threatens to affect our interests, or to endanger good order, either within the whole country or in any part of it. The act recites that "in the opinion of the government of the United States the coming of Chinese laborers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities thereof." But the act itself is much broader than the recital. It acts upon residence as well as immigration, and its provisions are effective throughout the United States. I think it may fairly be accepted as an expression of the opinion of Congress that the coming of such laborers to the United States, or their residence here, affects our interests and endangers good order through the country. On this point I should feel it my duty to accept the views of Congress.

The first article further confers the power upon this government to regulate, limit, or suspend, but not actually to prohibit, the coming of such laborers to or their residence in the United States. The negotiators of the treaty have recorded with unusual fulness their understanding of the sense and meaning with which these words were used.

As to the class of persons to be affected by the treaty, the Americans inserted in their draft a provision that the words "Chinese laborers" signify all immigration other than that for "teaching, trade, travel, study, and curiosity." The Chinese objected to this that it operated to include artisans in the class of laborers whose immigration might be forbidden. The Americans replied that they could not consent that artisans shall be excluded from the class of Chinese laborers, for it is this very competition of skilled labor in the cities, where the Chinese labor immigration concentrates, which has caused the embarrassment and popular discontent. In the subsequent negotiations this definition dropped out, and does not appear in the treaty. Article II. of the treaty confers the rights, privileges, immunities, and exemptions which are accorded to citizens and subjects of the most favored

nation upon Chinese subjects proceeding to the United States as teachers, students, merchants, or from curiosity. The American Commissioners report that the Chinese government claimed that in this article they did, by exclusion, provide that nobody should be entitled to claim the benefit of the general provisions of the Burlingame treaty but those who might go to the United States in those capacities or for those purposes. I accept this as the definition of the word "laborers" as used in the treaty.

As to the power of legislating respecting this class of persons the new treaty provides that we "may not absolutely prohibit" their coming or their residence. The Chinese commissioners gave notice in the outset that they would never agree to a prohibition of voluntary emigration. Notwithstanding this, the United States commissioners submitted a draft in which it was provided that the United States might "regulate, limit, suspend, or prohibit" it. The Chinese refused to accept this. The Americans replied that they were willing to consult the wishes of the Chinese government in preserving the principle of free intercourse between the people of the two countries as established by existing treaties, provided that the right of the United States government to use its discretion in guarding against any possible evils of immigration of Chinese laborers is distinctly recognized. Therefore, if such concession removes all difficulty on the part of the Chinese commissioners (but only in that case), the United States commissioners will agree to remove the word "prohibit" from their article and to use the words "regulate, limit, or suspend." The Chinese reply to this can only be inferred from the fact that in the place of an agreement, as proposed by our commissioners, that we might prohibit the coming or residence of Chinese laborers, there was inserted in the treaty an agreement that we might not do it.

The remaining words, "regulate, limit, and suspend," first appear in the American draft. When it was submitted to the Chinese they said: "We infer that of the phrases regulate, limit, suspend, or prohibit, the first is a general expression referring to the others. . . . We are entirely ready to negotiate with your Excellencies to the end that a limitation either in point of time or numbers may be fixed upon the emigration of Chinese laborers to the United States." At a subsequent interview they said that "by limitations in number they meant, for example, that the United States, having, as they supposed, a record of the number of immigrants in each year, as well as the total number of Chinese now there, that no more should be allowed to go in any one year in future than either the greatest number which had gone in any year in the past, or that the total number should never be allowed to exceed the number now there. As to limitation of time, they meant, for example, that Chinese should be allowed to go in alternate years, or every third year, or for example, that they should not be allowed to go for two, three, or five years." At a subsequent conference the Americans said: "The Chinese commissioners have in their project explicitly recognized the right of the United States to use some discretion, and have proposed a limitation as to time and number. This is the right to regulate, limit, or suspend."

In one of the conferences the Chinese asked the Americans whether they could give them any idea of the laws which would be passed to carry the powers into execution. The Americans answered that this could hardly be done; that the United States government might never deem it necessary to exercise this power. It would depend upon circumstances. If Chinese immigration concentrated in cities, where it threatened public order, or if it confined itself to localities where it was an injury to the interests of the American people, the government of the United States would undoubtedly take steps to prevent such accumulations of Chinese. If, on the contrary, there was no large immigration, or if there were sections of the country where such immigration was clearly beneficial, then the legislation of the United States under this power would be adapted to such circumstances. For example, there might be a demand for Chinese labor in the South and a surplus of such labor in California, and Congress might legislate in accordance with these facts. In general, the legislation would be in view of and depend upon circumstances of the situation at the moment

such legislation became necessary. The Chinese commissioners said this explanation was satisfactory; but they had not intended to ask for a draft of any special act, but for some general idea of how the power would be exercised. What had just been said gave them the explanation which they wanted.

With this entire accord as to the meaning of the words they were about to employ, and the object of the legislation which might be had in consequence, the parties signed the treaty, in Article I. of which "the government of China agrees that the government of the United States may regulate, limit, or suspend such coming or residence, but may not absolutely prohibit it. The limitation or suspension shall be reasonable, and shall apply only to Chinese who may go to the United States as laborers, other classes not being included in the limitations. Legislation taken in regard to Chinese laborers will be of such a character only as is necessary to enforce the regulation, limitation, or suspension of immigration."

The first section of the act provides that "from and after the expiration of sixty days next after the passage of this act, and until the expiration of twenty years next after the passage of this act, the coming of Chinese laborers be, and the same is hereby, suspended; and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese laborer to come, or having so come after the expiration of said sixty days, to remain within the United States."

The examination which I have made of the treaty and of the declarations which its negotiators have left on record of the meaning of its language leaves no doubt in my mind that neither contracting party in concluding the treaty of 1880 contemplated the passage of an act prohibiting immigration for twenty years, which is nearly a generation, or thought that such a period would be a reasonable suspension or limitation, or intended to change the provisions of the Burlingame treaty to that extent.

I regard this provision of the act as a breach of our national faith, and being unable to bring myself in harmony with the views of Congress on this vital point, the honor of the country constrains me to return the act with this objection to its passage.

Deeply convinced of the necessity of some legislation on this subject, and concurring fully with Congress in many of the objects which are sought to be accomplished, I avail myself of the opportunity to point out some other features of the present act which, in my opinion, can be modified to advantage.

The classes of Chinese who still enjoy the protection of the Burlingame treaty are entitled to the privileges, immunities, and exemptions accorded to citizens and subjects of the most favored nation. We have treaties with many powers which permit their citizens and subjects to reside within the United States and carry on business under the same laws and regulations which are enforced against citizens of the United States. I think it may be doubted whether provisions requiring personal registration and the taking out of passports which are not imposed upon natives can be required of Chinese. Without expressing an opinion on that point, I may invite the attention of Congress to the fact that the system of personal registration and passports is undemocratic and hostile to the spirit of our institutions. I doubt the wisdom of putting an entering wedge of this kind into our laws. A nation like the United States, jealous of the liberties of its citizens, may well hesitate before it incorporates into its polity a system which is fast disappearing in Europe before the progress of liberal institutions. A wide experience has shown how futile such precautions are, and how easily passports may be borrowed, exchanged, or even forged by persons interested to do so.

If it is, nevertheless, thought that a passport is the most convenient way for identifying the Chinese entitled to the protection of the Burlingame treaty, it may still be doubted whether they ought to be required to register. It is certainly our duty, under the Burlingame treaty, to make their stay in the United States, in the operation of general laws upon them, as nearly like that of our own citizens as we can consistently with our right to shut out the laborers. No good purpose is served in requiring them to register.

C. A. Arthur

My attention has been called by the Chinese minister to the fact that the bill as it stands makes no provision for the transit across the United States of Chinese subjects now residing in foreign countries. I think that this point may well claim the attention of Congress in legislating on this subject.

I have said that good faith requires us to suspend the immigration of Chinese laborers for a less period than twenty years. I now add that good policy points in the same direction.

Our intercourse with China is of recent date. Our first treaty with that power is not yet forty years old. It is only since we acquired California and established a great seat of commerce on the Pacific that we may be said to have broken down the barriers which fenced in that ancient monarchy. The Burlingame treaty naturally followed. Under the spirit which inspired it, many thousand Chinese laborers came to the United States. No one can say that the country has not profited by their work. They were largely instrumental in constructing the railroads which connect the Atlantic with the Pacific. The States of the Pacific slope are full of evidences of their industry. Enterprises profitable alike to the capitalist and the laborer of Caucasian origin would have been dormant but for them. A time has now come when it is supposed they are not needed, and when it is thought by Congress, and by those most acquainted with the subject, that it is best to try to get along without them. There may, however, be other sections of the country where this species of labor may be advantageously employed without interfering with the laborers of our own race. In making the proposed experiment it may be the part of wisdom, as well as of good faith, to fix the length of the experimental period with reference to this fact.

Experience has shown that the trade of the East is the key to national wealth and influence. The opening of China to the commerce of the whole world has benefited no section of it more than the States of our own Pacific slope. The State of California and its great maritime ports especially have reaped enormous advantages from this source. Blessed with an exceptional climate, enjoying an unrivalled harbor, with the riches of a great agricultural and mining State in its rear, and the wealth of the whole Union pouring into it over its lines of railroad, San Francisco has before it an incalculable future if our friendly and amicable relations with Asia remain undisturbed. It needs no argument to show that the policy which we now propose to adopt must have a direct tendency to repel Oriental nations from us, and to drive their trade and commerce into more friendly hands. It may be that the great and paramount interest of protecting our labor from Asiatic competition may justify us in a permanent adoption of this policy; but it is wiser in the first place to make a shorter experiment with a view hereafter of maintaining permanently only such features as time and experience may commend.

I transmit herewith copies of the papers relating to the recent treaty with China which accompanied the confidential message of President Hayes to the Senate of Jan. 10, 1881, and also a copy of the memorandum respecting the act herewith returned, which was handed to the Secretary of State by the Chinese minister in Washington. CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON,
April 4, 1882.

THE MEMORANDUM.

1. The time fixed in the bill, namely, twenty years, is unreasonable. The language of Article I. that "laborers" shall not be absolutely prohibited from coming to the United States and that the "suspension shall be reasonable," as well as the negotiations, indicate that a brief period was intended.

The total prohibition of the immigration of Chinese laborers into the United States for twenty years would, in my opinion, be unreasonable, and a violation of the meaning and intent of the treaty.

2. The inclusion of "skilled labor" in the bill is an addition to the words and intent of the treaty. It will operate with harshness upon a class of Chinese merchants entitled to admission to the United States under the terms of the treaty. The shoe merchants and cigar merchants of China manufacture the goods they sell

at their places of business, and to shut out the "skilled labor" they need would practically shut them out as well, since it would prevent them from carrying on their business in this country. The laundryman, who keeps his shop and has a small capital with which to prosecute his trade, cannot in any sense be included in the class of "laborers," and the merchant tailor comes in the same category.

3. The clauses of the bill relating to registration and passports are a vexatious discrimination against Chinese residents and immigrants, when Article II. provides explicitly that they shall be entitled to all the privileges conceded to the subjects of the most favored nation. The execution of these provisions of the bill will cause irritation, and in case of the loss of the passport or certificate of registration, Chinese residents entitled to remain may be forcibly expelled from the country.

4. If the bill becomes a law it will leave the impression in China that its government strangely misunderstood the character of the treaty, or that the Congress has violated some of its provisions, and this will tend to prejudice the intelligent classes against the United States government and people, whom they now greatly admire and respect.

5. There is no provision in the bill for the transit across the United States of Chinese subjects now residing in foreign countries. Large numbers of Chinese live in Cuba, Peru, and other countries, who cannot return home without crossing the territory of the United States or touching at San Francisco. To deny this privilege, it seems to me, is in violation of international law and the comity of nations, and if the bill becomes a law it will in this respect result in great hardship to many thousands of innocent Chinese in foreign countries.

Arthur, PETER M., labor leader; born in Scotland about 1831; emigrated as a boy to America; elected chief of the locomotive engineers in 1876.

Articles of Confederation. See CONFEDERATION, ARTICLES OF.

Articles of War. In the United States, Congress only can make articles of war. These have been based on the English articles and mutiny act. They were first adopted by the Continental Congress, July 30, 1775, and extended March 20, 1776; enacted again, with little alteration, April 10, 1806. Some additions were made from 1861–65, and in 1874 they were codified as section 1,342 of the *Revised Statutes of the United States.*

Artillery. See EXPLOSIVES FOR LARGE GUNS; ORDNANCE.

Arts. See FINE ARTS; MECHANIC ARTS; TECHNOLOGY, INSTITUTES OF.

Asboth, ALEXANDER SANDOR, military officer; born in Hungary, Dec. 18, 1811. He had served in the Austrian army, and at the outbreak of the revolution of 1848 he entered the insurgent army of Hungary. He accompanied Kossuth in exile in Turkey. In the autumn of 1851 he came to the United States in the frigate *Mississippi,* and became a citizen. When the Civil War broke out in 1861 he offered his services to the government, and in July he went as chief of Frémont's staff to Missouri, where he was soon promoted to brigadier-general. He performed faithful services until wounded in the face and one arm, in Florida, in a battle on Sept. 27, 1864. For his services there he was brevetted a major-general in the spring of 1865, and in August following he resigned, and was appointed minister to the Argentine Republic. The wound in his face caused his death in Buenos Ayres, Jan. 21, 1868.

Asbury, FRANCIS, first bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in America; born at Handsworth, Staffordshire, England, Aug. 26, 1745. In his twenty-third year he became an itinerant preacher under the guidance of John Wesley, and came to the United States in 1771. The next year Wesley appointed him general superintendent of the Methodist churches in America, and he held that office until the close of the Revolution, when the Methodists here organized as a body separate from the Church in England. Mr. Asbury was consecrated bishop by Dr. Coke in 1784. After that, for thirty-two years, he travelled yearly through the United States, ordaining not less than 3,000 ministers, and preaching not less than 17,000 sermons. He died in Spottsylvania, Va., March 31, 1816.

Asgill, SIR CHARLES, British military officer; born in England, April 7, 1762. He was among the troops under Corn-

wallis surrendered at Yorktown, where he held the position of captain. Late in 1781, Capt. Joseph Huddy, serving in the New Jersey line, was in charge of a block-house on Toms River, Monmouth co., N. J. There he and his little garrison were captured in March, 1782, by a band of refugee loyalists sent by the "Board of Associated Loyalists" of New York, of which ex-Governor Franklin, of New Jersey, was president, and taken to that city. On April 8, these prisoners were put in charge of Capt. Richard Lippincott, a New Jersey loyalist, who took them in a sloop to the British guard-ship at Sandy Hook. There Huddy was falsely charged with being concerned in the death of Philip

CAPT. CHARLES ASGILL.

White, a desperate Tory, who was killed while trying to escape from his guard. While a prisoner, Huddy was taken by Lippincott to a point at the foot of the Navesink Hills, near the present light-houses, and there hanged. Lippincott affixed a label to the breast of the murdered Huddy, on which retaliation was threatened, and ending with the words, "*Up goes Huddy for Philip White!*"

This murder created intense excitement at Freehold, N. J., where Huddy was buried, and the leading citizens petitioned Washington to retaliate. A council of his officers decided in favor of retaliation, and that Lippincott, the leader, ought to suffer. He was demanded of Sir Henry Clinton. Congress authorized retaliation, and from among several British officers, prisoners of war, Capt. Charles Asgill was chosen by lot, to be executed immediately. Washington postponed the execution until he should hear from Clinton about the surrender of Lippincott. Clinton at once condemned the action of Lippincott, and ordered (April 26) the Board of Associated Loyalists not to remove or exchange any prisoners of war without the authority of the commander-in-chief. He caused the arrest of Lippincott for trial, who claimed that he acted under orders of the Board of Associated Loyalists. Franklin tried to get him to sign a paper that he had acted without their orders or approbation, but he stoutly refused, and was acquitted. Sir Guy Carleton succeeded Clinton, and he promised that further inquiry in the matter should be had. Meanwhile months elapsed and the execution was postponed. Lady Asgill appealed to the king in behalf of her only son. She also wrote to the King and Queen of France asking them to intercede with Washington. She also wrote a touching letter to Washington, who was disposed to save the young officer, if possible. The King and Queen of France did intercede, and on Nov. 5, 1782, Congress resolved, "That the commander-in-chief be, and hereby is, directed to set Captain Asgill at liberty." It was done. The case of young Asgill had created an intense interest in Europe, and, on the arrival of every ship from America at any European port, the first inquiry was about the fate of Asgill. In 1836, Congress granted to Martha Piatt, only surviving child of Captain Huddy, then seventy years of age, $1,200 in money and 600 acres of land, the "amount due Captain Huddy for seven years' service as captain of artillery." Asgill succeeded to the title and estate of his father, and rose to the rank of general in the British army. He died in London, July 23, 1823. Madame de Sevingé made the story of Captain Asgill the groundwork of a tragic drama.

Ashburton, Alexander Baring, Lord, English diplomatist; born in England, Oct. 27, 1774; son of Sir Francis Baring, an eminent merchant; was employed, in his youth, in mercantile affairs, in the

United States, and married an American wife. In 1810 he became the head of his father's business house; in 1812–35 sat in Parliament, and in 1835 was raised to the peerage under the title of Baron Ashburton. The unsettled condition of the Northeastern boundary question led Sir Robert Peel to send Baron Ashburton to the United States, as being widely acquainted with American affairs. Here he concluded, Aug. 9, 1842, with Daniel Webster, the "Webster-Ashburton Treaty," which settled the northeastern boundary between the United States and the British dominions. For this achievement he was accorded, in both Houses of Parliament, a complimentary vote of thanks, and an earldom was offered him, which he declined. He was privy councillor, a trustee of the British Museum, and received the D.C.L. degree from Oxford. He died in Longleat, England, May 13, 1848. See WEBSTER, DANIEL.

Ashby, TURNER, military officer; born in Rose Hill, Fauquier co., Va., in 1824. When the Civil War began he raised a regiment of Confederate cavalry, which soon became celebrated. He covered the retreat of "Stonewall" Jackson from attacks by General Banks and General Frémont, skirmishing with the vanguard of each; and he was made a brigadier-general in the Confederate army in 1862. He was killed in an encounter preceding the battle of Cross Keys, June 6, 1862.

Ashe, JOHN, military officer; born in Grovely, Brunswick co., N. C., in 1720; was in the North Carolina legislature for several years, and was speaker in 1762–65. He warmly opposed the Stamp Act; assisted Governor Tryon in suppressing the Regulator movement in 1771, but soon afterwards became a zealous Whig. He was an active patriot, and because he led 500 men to destroy Fort Johnson he was denounced as a rebel. Raising and equipping a regiment at his own expense, he was appointed brigadier-general of the Wilmington District in April, 1776. He joined Lincoln in South Carolina in 1778; and after he was defeated at Brier Creek, in March, 1779, he returned home. General Ashe suffered much at the hands of the British at Wilmington after the battle at Guilford, and died of smallpox, which he had contracted in prison, in Sampson county, N. C., Oct. 24, 1781.

Ashmun, GEORGE, statesman; born in Blandford, Mass., Dec. 25, 1804; graduated at Yale in 1823; elected member of the State legislature 1833 to 1841; member of Congress 1845 to 1851; president of the Chicago convention which nominated Lincoln for President in 1860. He died in Springfield, Mass., July 17, 1870.

Ashmun, JEHUDI, missionary; born in Champlain, N. Y., in April, 1794; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1816. He was sent with a reinforcement to Liberia in 1822, where he acted as legislator, soldier, and engineer in constructing fortifications. He died in Boston, Mass., Aug. 25, 1828.

Asia, THE, the name of the British man-of-war which brought Governor Tryon to New York (June, 1775), and anchored off the Battery, foot of Broadway. A party led by John Lamb, a captain of artillery, proceeded, on the evening of Aug. 23, to remove the cannons from that battery and the fort (for war seemed inevitable) and take them to a place of safety. There was, also, an independent corps, under Colonel Lasher, and a body of citizens, guided by Isaac Sears. The captain of the *Asia*, informed of the intended movement, sent a barge filled with armed men to watch the patriots. The latter, indiscreetly, sent a musket-ball among the men in the barge, killing and wounding several. It was answered by a volley. The *Asia* hurled three round shot ashore in quick succession. Lamb ordered the drums to beat to arms; the church-bells in the city were rung, and, while all was confusion and alarm, the war-ship fired a broadside. Others rapidly followed. Several houses were injured by the grape and round shot, and three of Sears's party were killed. Terror seized the inhabitants as the rumor spread that the city was to be sacked and burned. Hundreds of men, women, and children were seen, at midnight, hurrying from the town to places of safety. The exasperation of the citizens was intense; and Tryon, taking counsel of his fears, took refuge on another vessel of war in the harbor, whence, like Dunmore, he attempted to exercise authority as governor. Among the citizens led by Sears was Alexander Hamilton,

then a student in King's College, eighteen years of age. The cannon were removed from the battery and fort, and did good service in the patriot cause afterwards.

Assay Offices in the United States are government establishments where the precious metals are officially tested to determine their purity. In 1901 these offices were located in New York City; Boisé City, Idaho; Helena, Mont.; Denver, Col.; Seattle, Wash.; San Francisco, Cal.; Charlotte, N. C.; and St. Louis, Mo. See COINAGE.

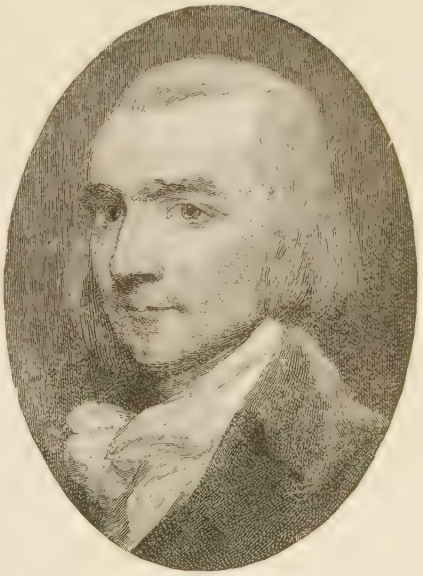
Assessment of Taxes. See GEORGE, HENRY; SINGLE TAX.

Assignment. See BANKRUPTCY LAW.

Assiniboine Indians, a branch of the Dakota family, inhabiting each side of the boundary-line between the United States and British America in Montana and Manitoba. In 1871 their number in the United States was estimated at 4,850, and in 1900 there were 1,316, nearly equally divided at the Fort Peck and Fort Belknap agencies in Montana.

Assumption. In 1790 Hamilton proposed that the general government assume the debts of the thirteen colonies. Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina opposed the plan, while New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, Georgia, and North Carolina favored it. Southern support was secured by agreeing to fix the national capital on the Potomac. By the act passed Aug. 4, 1790 the State debts, amounting to $21,500,000, were assumed by the general government.

Astor Family. John Jacob, the founder, was born in Waldorf, Germany, July 17, 1763. He remained in London until he was twenty, when he began the fur business in New York. He built up a vast fur-trade with the Indians, extending his business to the mouth of Columbia River, on the Pacific coast, where he founded the trading station of Astoria in 1811. By this and other operations in trade, and by investments in real estate, he accumulated vast wealth. He bequeathed $400,000 for establishing a library in the city of New York, which for many years was known by his name, and now forms a part of the New York Public Library. He died in New York City, March 29, 1848.



JOHN JACOB ASTOR.

His son WILLIAM BACKHOUSE; born Sept. 19, 1792; educated at the universities of Heidelberg and Göttingen. He added to the endowment of the Astor Library, and gave largely to public charities. He died Nov. 24, 1875.

JOHN JACOB, son of William B.; born June 10, 1822; served on the staff of General McClellan during the Civil War; promoted brigadier-general for meritorious services during the Peninsular campaign, 1865; declined the post of United States minister to England, 1876; added largely to the Astor Library and other public purposes. He died Feb. 22, 1890.

WILLIAM, son of William B.; born July 12, 1830; bequeathed $50,000 to the Astor Library, and $150,000 to other public institutions. He died April 25, 1892.

WILLIAM WALDORF, grandson of William B.; born March 31, 1848; United States minister to Italy, 1882–85; removed to England in 1891, and became a British subject.

JOHN JACOB, son of William; born July 13, 1864; served on the staff of General Shafter during the war with Spain.

Astoria, a city in Oregon, at the mouth of the Columbia River, founded in 1810 by JOHN JACOB ASTOR (*q. v.*). In 1900 the population was 8,381. See OREGON.

Astor Library. See NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

Astor Place Riot. See FORREST, EDWIN; MACREADY, WILLIAM CHARLES.

Asylums. See SOLDIERS' HOMES.

Athabasca Indians, a nation of North American Indians divided into two great families, one bordering on the Eskimos in the Northwest, and the other stretching along the Mexican frontier from Texas to the Gulf of California. The domain of the Northern family extends across the continent from Hudson Bay to the Pacific Ocean. There are some smaller bands of the same nation, scattered along the Pacific coast from Cook's Inlet to Umpqua River, in Oregon. The Northern family is divided into a large number of tribes, none of them particularly distinguished. The population of the Northern family is estimated at 32,000, that of the scattered bands at 25,000, and the Southern family at 17,000. The latter includes the Navajos and those fierce rovers, the Apaches, with which the government of the United States has had much to do. The Southern family also includes the Lipans on the borders of Texas. The Athabascans are distinguished for their heavy beards, short hands and feet, and square, massive heads. They derive their name from Lake Athabasca, in British North America, in lat. 59° N., and half-way between Hudson Bay and the Rocky Mountains. They claim to have come from the West, over a series of islands, and from a land covered with snow. Some observers trace in their language and features a resemblance to the Tartar race.

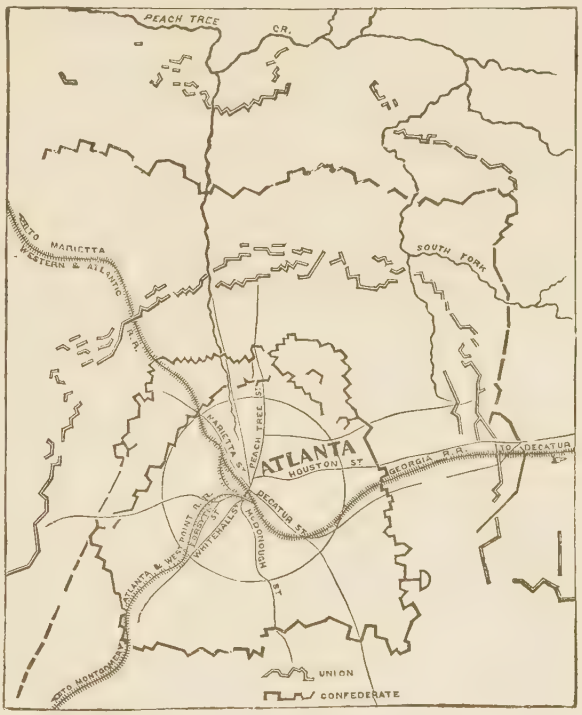
Atherton Gag, THE, the name applied to a resolution introduced into the national House of Representatives by Charles G. Atherton, of New Hampshire, providing that all petitions and papers relating to the subject of slavery should be "laid on the table without being debated, printed, or referred." The resolution, which was designed to prevent discussion of the slavery question, was passed Dec. 11, 1838, and was rescinded in 1845.

Atkinson, EDWARD, economist; born in Brookline, Mass., Feb. 10, 1827; was educated in private schools and at Dartmouth College; and is most widely known by his numerous publications on economic subjects, treating of banking, competition, cookery, mechanic arts, the tariff, insurance, etc. He invented an improved cooking-stove called the "Aladdin Cooker." Soon after Dewey's victory in Manila Bay, Mr. Atkinson became vice-president of the Anti-Imperialist League, and when it was evident that the United States would retain the Philippine Islands, the League produced three tracts, entitled *Criminal Aggression by Whom? The Hell of War and Its Penalties;* and *The Cost of the National Crime.* Gen. Elwell S. Otis, commander of the United States troops in the Philippines, early in 1899 notified the War Department that several seditious tracts, mailed in the United States, had been received by many officers and men in his command. After investigation instructions were given to the Postmaster-General to inform Mr. Atkinson and all postmasters in the United States that the mails would be closed to further transmission of the publications. In justification of his action, Mr. Atkinson declared that the tracts referred to were reprints from government publications and as such were rightfully entitled to circulation through the mails. Mr. Atkinson's publications include *The Distribution of Products* (1885); *Industrial Progress of the Nation* (1889); *The Science of Nutrition* (1892); *Taxation and Work* (1892); *Every Boy His Own Book* (1893), etc. See ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY; ANNEXED TERRITORY, STATUS OF; ANTI-EXPANSION; IMPERIALISM.

Atlanta, city, county-seat of Fulton county, and capital of the State of Georgia; 171 miles north by west of Augusta; popularly known as "The Gate City"; is noted for the historical events of which it was the centre, for its extensive commercial and manufacturing interests, and for its educational institutions. In its suburbs is Fort McPherson, one of the most complete of the modern military posts in the country. Cotton expositions were held here in 1881 and 1895. The population in 1890 was 65,533; in 1900, 89,872.

In the Civil War the main National and Confederate armies remained quiet in their camps after their arrival at the Chattahoochee until the middle of July, 1864. Sherman was 8 miles from the city. On the 17th he resumed offensive and active

operations, by throwing Thomas's army across the Chattahoochee, close to Schofield's right, with directions to move forward. McPherson moved against the railway east of Decatur, and destroyed (July 18) 4 miles of the track. Schofield seized Decatur. At the same time Thomas crossed Peach-tree Creek, on the 19th, in the face of the Confederate intrenchments, skirmishing heavily at every step. At this juncture, General Rousseau, who had swept through Alabama and northern Georgia, joined Sherman with 2,000 cavalry. On the 20th the National armies had all closed in, converging towards Atlanta, and at 4 P.M. the Confederates, under Hood, made a sortie, and struck Hooker's corps with great strength. The Confederates were repulsed and driven back to their intrenchments. The entire National loss in this conflict was 1,500 men; Sherman estimated that of the Confederates at not less than 5,000 men. Hood left on the field 500 dead, 1,000 severely wounded, and many prisoners. On the morning of the 21st the Confederates had abandoned their position on the south side of Peach-tree Creek, and Sherman believed they were evacuating Atlanta. He pressed on towards the town in a narrow semicircle, when, at the average distance of 2 miles from it, the Nationals were confronted by an inner line of intrenchments much stronger than the one just abandoned. Behind these swarmed a Confederate host. On the 22d, McPherson moved from Decatur to assail this strong line; Logan's corps formed his centre, Dodge's his right, and Blair's his left. The latter had driven the Confederates from a commanding eminence the evening before, and the Nationals proceeded to plant a battery upon it.



THE FORTIFICATIONS AROUND ATLANTA.

Hood had left a sufficient number of troops in front of Sherman to hold them, and, by a night march to the flank and rear of the Nationals, struck them a severe and unexpected blow. It fell with heaviest force on the division of Gen. G. A. Smith, of Blair's corps. McPherson had ridden from Sherman to Dodge's moving column, and had entered a wood almost alone, for observation, in the rear of Smith's column. At that moment Hardee charged upon the Nationals, and his men were pouring into a gap between Blair and Dodge. McPherson had just given an order from his place in the wood for a brigade to fill that gap, when the bullet of a sharp-shooter killed him. His body was recovered during the heat of the battle that ensued. Logan immediately took command of the Army of the Tennessee. At that moment the battle was general all along the line, and raged fiercely for several hours. At 4 P.M. there was a brief lull in the contest. Then a charge of the Confederates broke Logan's line, pushed back

a brigade in much disorder, and took possession of two important batteries. Sherman ordered up reinforcements, and Logan soon recovered the ground lost. Very soon the Confederates gave way and fell back to their defences.

The losses on both sides were heavy. That of the Nationals was 3,722, of whom about 1,000 were prisoners. Generals Thomas and Schofield having well closed up, Hood was firmly held behind his inner line of intrenchments. Sherman concluded to make a flank movement, and sent Stoneman with about 5,000 cavalry, and McCook with another mounted force, including Rousseau's cavalry, to destroy the railways in Hood's rear. McCook performed his part well, but Stoneman, departing from Sherman's instructions, did not accomplish much. Simultaneously with these raids, Slocum began (July 27) a flanking movement from Atlanta. Hood had penetrated Sherman's design, knew of changes in his army, and acted promptly. Under cover of an artillery fire, he moved out with the larger part of his army (July 28), with the expectation of finding Howard's forces in confusion. He was mistaken, and disastrous consequences followed. He threw heavy masses of his troops upon Logan's corps on Howard's right, and was met by a fire that made fearful havoc in their ranks. They recoiled, but returned to the attack again and again. The battle raged fearfully from noon until about 4 P.M., when the Confederates retired to their intrenchments, leaving several hundred of their dead on the field. Hood's entire loss in this struggle was about 5,000 men; that of the Nationals did not exceed 600. Logan captured 2,000 muskets, and took 233 prisoners. Sherman extended his right along an intrenched line to the junction of two railways at East Point, over which came the supplies for Atlanta and Hood's army; and the latter, extending a parallel line of works, stood on the defensive. Sherman's long-range guns kindled destructive fires in Atlanta. At length Hood, who had lost half his infantry in rash encounters, in sheer desperation sent out Wheeler with his cavalry to break up Sherman's communications and capture supplies. Kilpatrick made a successful counter-movement.

On the 25th all of Sherman's munitions of war, supplies, and sick and wounded men were sent to his intrenched position on the Chattahoochee, the siege of Atlanta was raised, and the Nationals began a grand flanking movement, which events had delayed, and which finally caused Hood to abandon the coveted post, cross the Chattahoochee, and make a formidable raid upon Sherman's communications. The Nationals entered Atlanta as victors on Sept. 2, 1864, and the national flag was unfurled over the court-house. Two days afterwards, Sherman issued an order for the inhabitants to leave the town within five days, that the place might be appropriated to military purposes. He deemed the measure humane, under the circumstances, for he expected the Confederates to attack him there. To a remonstrance by Hood, he replied, "God will judge me in good time, and He will pronounce whether it be more humane to fight with a town full of women and the families of a brave people at our backs, or to remove them in time to places of safety among their own friends." In a few days Atlanta was thoroughly evacuated by the civilians.

Atlantic Ocean. See COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY, UNITED STATES.

Atlantic Telegraph. In 1843 (Aug. 10), Prof. Samuel F. B. Morse, who had endowed the electro-magnetic telegraph with intellectual power, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, remarked, after alluding to recent experiments, "The practical inference from this law is, that a telegraphic communication on my plan may, with certainty, be established across the Atlantic. Startling as this may *now* seem, the time will come when this project will be realized." Almost eleven years afterwards an attempt was made to establish telegraphic communication between America and Europe by means of an insulated metallic cable under the sea. Cyrus W. Field, a New York merchant, was applied to for aid in completing a land line of telegraph on the Morse plan, then in the course of construction across Newfoundland—about 400 miles. The question occurred to him, "Why not carry the line across the ocean?" and with his usual pluck and energy he proceeded to the accomplishment

of such an enterprise. On March 10, 1854, five gentlemen met at the house of Mr. Field, on Gramercy Park, New York, and signed an agreement for an association called "The New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company." They obtained from the legislature of Newfoundland a charter guaranteeing an exclusive right, for fifty years, to establish a telegraph from the American continent to that island, and thence to Europe. These gentlemen were Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts, Chandler White, and Cyrus W. Field. Twenty-five years afterwards, all but one (Mr. White) were living, and again met in the same room, and around the same table whereon that association was signed, with the same attorney of the association then engaged, David Dudley Field.

Mr. Cooper was chosen president of the company. Mr. Field procured a cable in England to span the waters between Cape Ray and Cape Breton Island. It was sent out in 1855, and was lost in an attempt to lay it. It was recovered, and was successfully laid in 1856. The same year Mr. Field organized in London the "Atlantic Telegraph Company" to carry the line across the ocean. Mr. Field subscribed for one-fourth of the stock of the company. The American and British governments gave them aid in ships, and during 1857 and 1858 expeditions were at sea, laying a cable across the ocean to Valentia on the western coast of Ireland. Twice, in 1857, the attempt failed, but was successful the following year. Two vessels, with portions of the cable, met in mid-ocean, July 28, 1858. The portions were spliced, and they sailed for Ireland and Newfoundland respectively, and succeeded in laying a continuous line across the Atlantic. It was 1,950 miles in length, and traversed water two-thirds of the distance over 2 miles in depth. These wonderful facts were communicated by Mr. Field, by telegram, from Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, on Aug. 5, 1858, and created intense interest all over the country.

The first public messages across the Atlantic were transmitted, Aug. 16, 1858, by Queen Victoria to President Buchanan, and by him in an immediate reply, in which they congratulated each other on the success of the enterprise by which the two countries were connected by such a mysterious tie. The Queen hoped that it would "prove an additional link between the nations, whose friendship is founded upon their common interest and reciprocal esteem." To this the President cordially responded, and asked: "Will not all nations of Christendom spontaneously unite in the declaration that it shall be forever neutral, and that its communications shall be held sacred in passing to their places of destination even in the midst of hostilities?" Bonfires and illuminations throughout the Union followed these communications. The London *Times* said (Aug. 6, 1858), "Since the discovery of Columbus, nothing has been done in any degree comparable to the vast enlargement which has thus been given to the sphere of human activity." In a very short time the cable ceased to work, and it was pronounced a failure. It was even intimated that the reputed despatches were only part of a huge fraud. Mr. Field's faith never faltered, though discouragements that would have paralyzed the energies of most men were encountered. He crossed the Atlantic several times to resuscitate the company. The cable had cost $1,256,250, and the expenses of the company up to Dec. 1, 1858, amounted to $1,834,500. The Civil War broke out in 1861, and it was not until 1865 that another expedition to lay a cable was fitted out. The *Great Eastern* then carried an improved cable. While laying it, a sudden lurch of the ship snapped the line, and it was lost. The company was discouraged. Mr. Field went to Thomas Brassey, a great and liberal English capitalist, and told him that the Atlantic Telegraph Company had suddenly come to a stand-still. "Mr. Field," said Mr. Brassey, "don't be discouraged; go down to the company and tell them to go ahead, and, whatever the cost, I will bear one-tenth of the whole." That company and the "Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company" joined in forming a new association known as the "Anglo-American Telegraph Company," with a capital of $3,000,000. Another cable was laid, and permanent electric communication between Europe and America was established July 27, 1866. After twelve years of hard and anxious

labor, during which time Mr. Field crossed the ocean nearly fifty times, he saw the great work accomplished. He had been nobly aided by men in Europe and America. Congress voted him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal, while the Prime Minister of England declared that it was only the fact that he was a citizen of another country that prevented his receiving high honors from the British government. The glory of his achievement transcends all that man could bestow. See CABLES, OCEAN; FIELD, CYRUS W.

At Lee, SAMUEL JOHN, military officer; born in Pennsylvania, in 1738. He commanded a company of Pennsylvanians in the French and Indian War. Entering the Continental army, Pennsylvania line, he commanded a battalion in the battle of Long Island, Aug. 27, 1776, where he was made prisoner and remained some time in the hands of the British. Afterwards he was appointed a commissioner to treat with the Indians. He was a member of the Continental Congress from 1778 to 1782. He died in Philadelphia, November, 1786.

Atlixco, BATTLE AT. General Lee marched from Puebla (Mexico) in October, 1847, to attack the Mexican General Rea, of Santa Ana's army, at Atlixco, 30 miles from that place. Lane's cavalry first encountered Rea's advanced guard, and skirmished until the arrival of his infantry, when the Mexicans fell back towards Atlixco, keeping up a running fight. Less than 2 miles from that place their main body was discovered (Oct. 18, 1847). Lane's cavalry dashed in among them and drove them into a thick chaparral, which the horses could not enter. The cavalry dismounted, entered the thicket, and there a long and fierce hand-to-hand encounter ensued. The rest of the Americans coming up, the Mexicans were forced into the town, when Lane's artillery, posted on a hill, cannonaded the place most severely by the light of the moon. The Mexicans were driven away with much loss. At Atlixco Santa Ana's troops finally deserted him, and he fled alone towards the coast. So ended the active hostilities of the Mexican War.

Attainder, ACTS OF, in English law, punishing a person by declaring his "blood attainted," and involving forfeiture of property, have been numerous. Two witnesses in cases of high treason were necessary where corruption of blood was incurred, unless the party accused confess or stand mute. In the United States the Constitution explicitly says: "No bill of attainder shall be passed, and no attainder of treason, in consequence of a judicial sentence, shall work corruption of blood or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted."

Attakappa Indians, a tribe found on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico, west of the Mississippi River, in southern Louisiana and eastern Texas. The Choctaws named them Attakappas, or Man-eaters. The French were the first Europeans who discovered them; and the Attakappas aided the latter in a war with the Natchez and Chickasaws. When Louisiana was ceded to the United States in 1803, there were only about 100 of this nation on their ancient domain, near Vermilion Bayou, and they had almost wholly disappeared by 1825. What their real name was, or whence they came, may never be known. Their language was peculiar, composed of harsh monosyllables.

Attiwandaronk Indians, members of the family of the Hurons and Iroquois, named by the French the Neutral Nation. In early times they inhabited both banks of the Niagara River, but were mostly in Canada. They were first visited in 1627 by the Recollet Father Daillon, and by Brébeuf and Chaumonot in 1642. The Iroquois attacked them in 1651–53, when a part of them submitted and joined the Senecas, and the remainder fled westward and joined the remnant of the fallen Hurons on the borders of Lake Superior.

Attorney-General of the United States. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

Attu, one of the Aleutian Islands, the most westerly point of the United States. It lies 400 miles from Kamchatka. Calling Attu the western extremity of the United States, the city of San Francisco, Cal., is near the middle of its geographical extent east and west, the territories of the United States stretching through 120 degrees of longitude.

Auchmuty, RICHARD TYLDEN, philanthropist; born in New York City, in 1831; became an architect, and for many years was associated in practice with James

Renwick. He served in the Union army during the war, and after its close he refused several public offices, retired from business and applied himself to works of benevolence. In 1881 he and his wife established the New York Trade Schools, on a plan entirely original, at a cost of $250,000. J. Pierpont Morgan made the success of this institution permanent by giving it an endowment of $500,000 in 1892. He died in Lenox, Mass., July 18, 1893.

Audenried, JOSEPH CRAIN, military officer; born in Pottsville, Pa., Nov. 6, 1839; graduated at West Point in 1861; served throughout the Civil War; lieutenant-colonel for gallant conduct in the Atlanta campaign, 1865; colonel of staff in 1869. He died in Washington, June 3, 1880.

Auditor, under the United States government, the title of an officer having charge of various branches of public accounts. Each of the departments has one such officer, with a deputy. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

Audubon, JOHN JAMES, ornithologist; born in New Orleans, May 4, 1780; was the son of a French admiral. Educated at Paris, he acquired much skill as an artist

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON.
(From an old print.)

under the instruction of the celebrated David. At the age of seventeen years he began to make a collection of drawings of the birds of America, and became a most devoted student of the feathered tribes of our country. So early as 1810 he went down the Ohio River with his wife and child in an open boat, to a congenial spot for a forest home. He visited almost every region of the United States. In some of his Western excursions, Wilson, the ornithologist, was his companion. In 1826 he went to Europe to secure subscriptions to his great work, *The Birds of America.* It was issued in numbers, each containing five plates, the subjects drawn and colored the size and tints of life. It was completed in 4 volumes, in 1838. Of the 170 subscribers to the work, at $1,000 each, nearly one-half came from England and France. He also prepared a work entitled *Ornithological Biographies,* and had partly completed a work entitled *Quadrupeds of America,* when he died. His two sons, who inherited his tastes and much of his genius, finished this work, which was published in 1850. His residence, in the latter years of his life, was on the banks of the Hudson, not far from Washington Heights. He died in New York City, Jan. 27, 1851.

Auger, CHRISTOPHER COLON, military officer; born in New York July 10, 1821; was graduated at West Point in 1843. He served as aide-de-camp to Generals Hopping and Cushing in the war with Mexico, and in 1861 was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, after serving under McDowell. He took command of a division under Banks, and was wounded at the battle of Cedar Mountain, Aug. 9, 1862; the same month he was made major-general of volunteers. In November, 1862, he reported to General Banks for service in a Southern expedition, and was very active in the siege and capture of Port Hudson. From October, 1863, to August, 1866, he had command of the Department of Washington, and in 1867 he was assigned to the Department of the Platte. In 1869 he was made brigadier-general U. S. A., and in 1885 was retired. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 16, 1898.

Augusta, city and county-seat of Richmond county, Ga.; on the Savannah River at the head of steamboat navigation; 120 miles northwest of Savannah. It is one of the largest and most progressive manufacturing cities in the South. It was founded by English settlers under Oglethorpe, and received the name of an English princess. In 1817 it was incorporated

a city, and was for many years the most important inland place in the State. The population in 1890 was 33,300; in 1900, 39,441.

When Cornwallis proceeded to subjugate South Carolina, he sent Lieutenant-Colonel Brown, a Tory leader, to hold Augusta. Over this garrison Pickens and Clarke had kept watch, and when, on May 20, 1781, they were joined by Lee and his legion, they proceeded to invest the fort there. They took Fort Galphin, 12 miles below, on the 21st, and then an officer was sent to demand the surrender of Augusta. Lieutenant-Colonel Brown was one of the most cruel of the Tories in that region, and the partisans were anxious to make him a prisoner. He refused to surrender. A regular siege began May 23, and continued until June 4, when a general assault was agreed upon. Hearing of this, Brown proposed to surrender, and the town was given up the next day. In this siege the Americans lost fifty-one men killed and wounded; and the British lost fifty-two killed, and 334, including the wounded, were made prisoners. For several years after the war it was the capital of Georgia. It was garrisoned by Confederate troops during the Civil War, and was twice threatened by Sherman in his marches from Atlanta to the sea and through South Carolina.

Austin, Oscar Phelps, statistician; born in Illinois; engaged from early life as a contributor, reporter, editor, and Washington correspondent for metropolitan newspapers. In 1892 and 1896 he edited the campaign documents for the Republican National Committee, and in May, 1898, was appointed chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the United States Treasury Department. He is author of *Uncle Sam's Secrets; Uncle Sam's Soldiers; Colonial Systems of the World; Submarine Telegraphs of the World*, etc. See Commerce, A Century of.

Austin, Stephen Fuller, colonist; born in Austinville, Va., Nov. 3, 1793, son of Moses Austin of Connecticut, who in 1820 received from Mexico permission to colonize 300 families in the province of Texas. Moses Austin died June 10, 1821; but his son Stephen was recognized as heir to the grant. In December, 1821, he established on the Brazos River a settlement which he called San Felipe de Austin. Austin was given almost absolute power over his colony; but his government was wise and, on the whole, quite successful. In 1833 the people of Texas framed a State constitution, which Austin took to the city of Mexico for ratification by the National government. While there he wrote a letter to the municipal authorities of Bexar, advising the Texans to organize a government of their own. For this Austin was arrested while on his way home, taken back to Mexico, and detained from early in 1834 till the summer of 1835. On his return to Texas he joined the revolution; became commander-in-chief of the Texas army; and was appointed commissioner to the United States. As commissioner he did Texas good service. In the fall of 1836 he was a candidate for President of the new republic, but was defeated by Sam Houston. He was appointed Secretary of State by Houston, and was engaged in negotiations to obtain official recognition of the independence of Texas by the United States, when he died, Dec. 27, 1836.

Australian Ballot. See Ballot Reform.

Automatic Gun, a light mounted breech-loading gun, so constructed that the power in the recoil of each shot discharges the empty cartridge case, reloads, and returns the gun to its firing position. In the Maxim gun, invented by Hiram S. Maxim, the constant pressure upon the trigger keeps it in firing action till all of its ammunition is discharged. A hundred or more cartridges, the number depending upon the size of the gun, are strung on a belt and are directly fed into the ammunition box. There are two calibres of the Maxim gun: the first being the size of an ordinary rifle and easily held out at arm's length; the second fires a one-pound ball. Both of these guns can fire several hundred shots a minute, the first about 700. The Colt gun is also fully automatic. It has but a single barrel, which, owing to its thickness, does not heat quickly, and consequently does not need a water-jacket. The barrel is attached to a breech casing, and the belts are either contained in boxes or may rest on the ground. When fastened to the casing, the boxes move with it.

Auttose, Battle of. Late in November, 1813, the Creek country was invaded by troops from Georgia. A cry for help from the settlers among the Creeks had come to the ears of the Georgians, when Gen. John Floyd, at the head of 950 militia of that State and 450 friendly Indians, guided by Mordecai, a Jew trader, entered the region of the hostiles from the east. Crossing the Chattahoochee, he pushed on towards the Tallapoosa, where he was informed that a large number of hostile Indians had gathered at the village of Auttose, on the "Holy Ground," on which the prophets had made the barbarians believe no white man could set foot and live. It was on the left bank of the Tallapoosa, about 20 miles above its confluence with the Coosa. Floyd encamped unobserved near the town on the evening of Nov. 28, and at dawn he appeared before the village with his troops arrayed for battle in three columns. He also had two or three field-pieces. There were two towns, one below the other. The towns were simultaneously attacked, and a general battle ensued. After a brief contest, the roar of artillery and a furious bayonet charge made the Indians fall back in terror to whatever shelter they could find. Their dwellings, about 400 in number, were burned, and the smitten and dismayed barbarians were hunted and butchered with fiendish cruelty. It was estimated that fully 200 of the Indians were murdered. Floyd lost eleven men killed and fifty-four wounded. He had marched 120 miles, laid waste the town, and destroyed the inhabitants in the space of seven days.

Averasboro, Battle of. On his march from Fayetteville to Goldsboro, Sherman's forces were menaced by the Confederates, and Kilpatrick had several skirmishes with Wheeler and Hampton. He had struck the rear of Hardee's column (March 8, 1865) in its retreat towards Fayetteville. He had fought Hampton, and was defeated, losing many men (who were made prisoners) and guns. Kilpatrick barely escaped on foot in a swamp, where he rallied his men. They fell upon Hampton, who was plundering their camp, routed him, and retook the guns. Hampton had captured 103 Nationals and killed or wounded eighty. At Fayetteville, Sherman utterly destroyed the arsenal, with all the valuable public property of the Confederates there. Moving on, Sherman in accordance with his usual plan, made movements to distract his adversary. He sent Slocum with four divisions of the left wing, preceded by cavalry, towards Averasboro and the main road to Raleigh; while two divisions of that wing, with the train, took the direct road to Goldsboro. Howard moved with four divisions on the right, ready to assist the left if necessary. It was a terrible march over quagmire roads, made so by incessant rain. They had to be corduroyed continually. Slocum found Hardee intrenched near Averasboro with about 20,000 men. General Williams, with the 20th Corps, took the lead in making an attack, and very soon he broke the Confederate left wing into fragments and drove it back upon a second and stronger line. Ward's division pushed the fugitives and captured three guns and 217 men; and the Confederates left 108 of their dead on the field. Kilpatrick was just securing a footing on the road to Bentonville when he was furiously attacked by McLaw's division, and, after a hard fight, was pushed back. Then the whole of Slocum's line advanced, drove Hardee within his intrenchments, and pressed him so heavily that on the dark and stormy night of March 16, 1865, he retreated to Smithfield. Slocum lost in the battle seventy-seven killed and 477 wounded. Hardee's loss was estimated at about the same. Ward pursued the fugitives through Averasboro, but soon gave up the chase.

Averell, William Woods, military officer; born in Cameron, N. Y., Nov. 5, 1832; graduated at West Point in 1855. Entering the Mounted Rifles, he distinguished himself in New Mexico by the surprise and capture of a body of Indians. In that warfare he was severely wounded. Soon after the breaking out of the Civil War he was chosen colonel of a regiment of Pennsylvania cavalry, and became brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1862. He had taken an active part in the battles on the Peninsula and in Pope's campaign in July and August, 1862. He reinforced Pleasonton in the advance after the battle of Antietam, and was afterwards very active in Virginia, especially in the mountain regions, in 1863.

There had been comparative quiet in that region after the close of 1861 until the summer and fall of 1863, when General Averell, with a cavalry force, made extensive raids in that mountainous country. Before the close of that year he had nearly purged western Virginia of armed Confederates, and seriously interrupted railway communication between the

WILLIAM WOODS AVERELL.

armies of Lee and Bragg. Col. John Tolland had led a cavalry raid in these mountain regions in July, 1863. He made a descent upon Wytheville, on the Virginia and Tennessee Railway, where his force was roughly handled by Confederates. Tolland was killed, and his command returned to the Kanawha. In a ride of about 400 miles, during eight days, they had suffered much, and lost eighty-two men and 300 horses. A little later General Averell started from Tygart's Valley; passed through several counties southward; drove Confederates over Warm Spring Mountains; destroyed saltpetre-works; menaced Staunton, and was confronted by a large force of Gen. S. Jones's command near White Sulphur Springs, where a conflict for Rock Gap occurred, and lasted the greater part of Aug. 26 and 27. Averell was repulsed, and made his way back to Tygart's Valley, having lost 207 men and a Parrott gun, which burst during the fight. The Confederates lost 156 men. Much later in the year Averell made another aggressive movement. He left Beverly early in November with 5,000 men of all arms, and moved southward, driving Confederates under Gen. "Mudwall" (W. S.) Jackson to a post on the top of Droop Mountain, in Greenbrier county; stormed them (Nov. 6, 1863), and drove them into Monroe county, with a loss of over 300 men, three guns, and 700 small-arms. Averell's loss was about 100 men.

West Virginia was now nearly free of armed Confederates, and Averell started, in December, with a strong force of Virginia mounted infantry, Pennsylvania cavalry, and Ewing's battery, to destroy railway communications between the armies of Lee in Virginia and Bragg in Tennessee. He crossed the mountains amid ice and snow, and first struck the Virginia and Tennessee Railway at Salem, on the headwaters of the Roanoke River, where he destroyed the station-house, rolling-stock, and Confederate supplies. Also, in the course of six hours his troops tore up the track, heated and ruined the rails, burned five bridges, and destroyed several culverts over the space of 15 miles. This raid aroused all the Confederates of the mountain region, and seven separate commands were arranged in a line extending from Staunton to Newport to intercept the raider. He dashed through this line at Covington in the face of some opposition, destroyed the bridges behind him, and one of his regiments, which had been cut off from the rest, swam the stream and joined the others, with the loss of four men drowned. Averell captured during the raid about 200 men. "My command," he said in his report (Dec. 21, 1863), "has marched, climbed, slid, and swam 340 miles since the 8th inst." He reported a loss of six men drowned, five wounded, and ninety missing.

He performed gallant service under Hunter, Sigel, and Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864; and was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865. The same year he resigned his commission of captain in the regular army. He was consul-general at Montreal in 1866–69. In 1888, by special act of Congress, he was reappointed a captain in the army, and soon afterwards was retired. He died in Bath, N. Y., Feb. 3, 1900.

Avery, Samuel Putnam, benefactor; born in New York City, March 17, 1822;

began his business career as a copper-plate and wood engraver; in 1865 became an art publisher and dealer; and retired in 1888. He was a founder of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, and is a life member of the American Geographical Society, American Historical Society, American Zoological Society, and American Museum of Natural History. He has also been president of the Grolier Club, and of the Sculpture Society. In 1891 he and his wife established the Avery Architectural Library in Columbia University, in memory of their deceased son. In 1900 he gave to the NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY (*q. v.*) a collection of photographs, lithographs, and etchings, amounting in all to over 17,500 pieces, and, with this collection, a large number of art volumes. He died Aug. 12, 1904.

Avery, WAIGHTSTILL, lawyer; born in Groton, Conn., May 3, 1745; studied law in Maryland, and began its practice in Mecklenburg county, N. C., in 1769. He was prominent there among the opposers of the obnoxious measures of the British Parliament bearing on the colonies, and was one of the promoters and signers of the famous "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence." He was a delegate to the Provincial Congress at Hillsborough in 1775 which organized the military forces of the State; and in the summer of 1776 he joined the army, under General Rutherford, in the Cherokee country. He was a commissioner in framing the treaty of Holston, which effected peace on the Western frontier. Mr. Avery was active in civil affairs; and in 1779 was colonel of the county militia, serving with great zeal during the British invasion of North Carolina. He removed to Burke county in 1781, which he represented in the State legislature many years. He was the first State attorney-general of North Carolina. He died in Burke county, N. C., March 15, 1821.

Ayres, ROMEYN BECK, military officer; born in East Creek, N. Y., Dec. 20, 1825; was graduated at West Point in 1847. He served in the artillery in the war with Mexico, and commanded a battery in the battle of Bull Run. In October, 1861, he became chief of artillery of Gen. W. F. Smith's division, and soon afterwards of the 6th Corps. He was in the campaign on the Peninsula, and the chief battles afterwards in Virginia and Maryland. He served with distinction through the Richmond campaign of 1864-65; was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865; promoted to colonel of the 3d Artillery, July 18, 1879; and died in Fort Hamilton, N. Y., Dec. 4, 1888.

Aztecs. The most probable—that is, the least unlikely—traditions represent that the Nahuatlecas, the great family of which the Aztecs were a tribe or nation, displaced a people of much higher culture, and of whose civilization that of the Aztecs was only a rude reflection. Tradition represents the seven tribes of the Nahuatlecas as emerging from seven caverns in the region called Aztlan, possibly Arizona and New Mexico. See CORTEZ; MONTEZUMA; VELASQUEZ.

B.

Babbitt, Isaac, inventor; born in Taunton, Mass., July 26, 1799. About 1831 he made, in Taunton, the first Britannia-ware manufactured in the United States, and in 1839 he invented the anti-friction metal which bears his name. Congress gave him $20,000 for his invention; and he took out patents in England (1844) and Russia (1847). He died in Somerville, Mass., May 26, 1862.

Babcock, Kendric Charles, educator; born in South Brookfield, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1864; was graduated at the University of Minnesota in 1889; and became professor of history in the University of California in 1894.

Babuyan Islands, a group of small islands in the Balintang Channel, between Formosa and the northern extremity of the island of Luzon in the Philippines. The principal one is Claro Babuyan. These islands are also known as Madjicosima Islands, and administratively were connected in the past with the Loo-Choo Islands. The population in 1898 was supposed to be about 12,000. See Luzon; Philippine Islands.

Bache, Alexander Dallas, physicist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 19, 1806; was a great-grandson of Dr. Franklin, and was graduated at the United States Military Academy with high honor in 1825, receiving the appointment of lieutenant of engineers, and remaining in the academy awhile as assistant professor. Two years he was under Colonel Totten in the construction of military works in Newport, where he married Miss Fowler, who, as his wife, was his great assistant in astronomical observations. He resigned from the army in 1827, and from that time until 1832 he was a professor in the University of Pennsylvania. Ardently devoted to scientific pursuits, he made important discoveries. In 1836 he was chosen president of the board of trustees of Girard College, and he was very efficient in the organization of that institution. He visited Europe to study various institutions of learning there; and in 1839 he published a *Report on the European System of Education.* In 1841 he became the first principal of the Philadelphia High School; and in 1843 he was appointed superintendent of the United States Coast Survey. His services in this field were of the highest importance. Various universities conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. He published several scientific essays; was a member of the Light-house Board; a regent of the Smithsonian Institution, and active in various public labors. Dr. Bache bequeathed $42,000 to the Academy of Natural Science in Philadelphia, for the promotion of researches in physical and natural science, by assisting experimenters and observers. He died

ALEXANDER DALLAS BACHE.

in Newport, R. I., Feb. 17, 1867. See Coast and Geodetic Survey.

Bache, Franklin, chemist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 25, 1792; became Professor of Chemistry at the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and at the Philadelphia Medical College; published *System of Chemistry for Students of Medicine,* and was associated with Professor Wood in compiling *Dispensatory of the United States.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 19, 1864.

Bache, George M., naval officer; born in the District of Columbia, Nov. 12, 1840; was graduated at the Naval Academy in 1860. He became lieutenant in 1862; lieutenant-commmander in 1866; and commander in 1875; and was retired April 5, 1875. He commanded an ironclad gunboat on the Mississippi early in the Civil War, and behaved with great bravery before Vicksburg. He was afterwards in command of a little squadron of gunboats in a spirited action near Clarendon, Ark., in June, 1864. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 11, 1896.

Bache, Hartman, engineer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 3, 1798; was graduated at West Point in 1818, and while in the army served continuously as a topographical engineer, on surveys for harbor and river improvements, coast defence, roads, and canals. On March 3, 1865, he was promoted to brigadier-general, the highest rank in the engineer corps, and in 1867 was retired. His most important engineering works were the construction of the Delaware breakwater and the successful application of iron screw-piles in the building of foundations of light-houses upon coral-reefs and sandy shoals. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 8, 1872.

Bache, Sarah, philanthropist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 11, 1744; daughter of Benjamin Franklin and wife of Richard Bache; was distinguished throughout the Revolutionary War for her efforts to relieve the condition of the American troops, collecting money, purchasing medicines and other supplies, and directing nearly 3,000 women in the work of making clothing and other necessities for the army. She also performed valuable service in the hospitals as a nurse. She died Oct. 5, 1808.

Bachman, John, naturalist; born in Dutchess county, N. Y., Feb. 4, 1790. He was pastor of a Lutheran church at Charleston, S. C., in 1815–74; but is best known from his association with Audubon in the preparation of his great work on ornithology. He contributed the most of the text on the quadrupeds of North America, which Audubon and his sons illustrated. He died in Charleston, S. C., Feb. 25, 1874.

Bacolor, a town in Luzon, Philippine Islands, on the road from Manila to Tarlac; about 30 miles northwest of the former city. During the British invasion of the Philippines, in 1762, it was for some time the capital of the group, the Spaniards, under fear lest the city of Manila should be bombarded, hastily removing their seat of government. The town attracted considerable attention in 1899 because of the United States military operations against the Filipino insurgents and the remarkable chase after Aguinaldo through that section of Luzon. See Aguinaldo, Emilio; Luzon.

Bacon, Delia, author; born in Tallmadge, O., Feb. 2, 1811; a sister of Dr. Leonard Bacon (*q. v.*). She published in 1857 *The Philosophy of Shakespeare's Plays,* in which she put forth the hypothesis that these plays were not written by Shakespeare, but by Sir Francis Bacon. She died in Hartford, Conn., Sept. 2, 1859.

Bacon, John Mosby, military officer; born in Kentucky, April 17, 1844; enlisted as a private Sept. 22, 1862; was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers May 4, 1898; subdued the Chippewas during the outbreak of 1898; and served in Cuba during the American-Spanish War.

Bacon, Leonard, clergyman; born in Detroit, Mich., Feb. 19, 1802; graduated at Yale in 1820, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1824, and connected with Yale Divinity School for many years, and lecturer on American Church History. He was one of the editors of the *Independent* for several years, and author of *Select Practical Writings of Richard Baxter; Thirteen Dicourses on the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the First Church in New Haven; Slavery Discussed; Genesis of the New England*

Churches, etc. He died in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 24, 1881.

Bacon, NATHANIEL, patriot; born in Suffolk, England, Jan. 2, 1642. He was educated at the Inns of Court, London; came to America with a considerable fortune in 1670; settled in Gloucester county, Va., and owned a large estate high up on the James River. A lawyer by profession and eloquent in speech, he easily exercised great influence over the people. He became a member of the council in 1672. He was a republican in sentiment; and, strongly opposing the views and public conduct of Governor Berkeley, the stanch loyalist, he stirred up the people to rebellion. Berkeley, who was very popular at first, had become tyrannical and oppressive as an uncompromising royalist and rigorous executor of his royal master's will. At the same time republicanism had begun a vigorous growth among the people of Virginia; but it was repressed somewhat by a majority of royalists in the House of Burgesses; and the council were as pliant tools of Berkeley as any courtiers who paid homage to the King. The governor rigidly enforced navigation laws oppressive to colonial commerce; and the marriage laws, and the elective and other franchises, were modified, abridged, or abolished. The Church of England was made supreme, and was an instrument of persecution in the hands of the dominant party, in attempts to drive Baptists, Quakers, and Puritans out of Virginia. Stimulated by these oppressions, republicanism grew vigorously in Virginia, and the toilers and righteous men of the aristocracy soon formed a powerful republican party that threatened ere long to fill the House of Burgesses with men of their creed. Berkeley, having a pliant majority of the cavalier class in the Assembly, sanctioned unjust and arbitrary decrees of the King, who gave to profligate court favorites, first large tracts of land, some of it cultivated, in Virginia; and, finally, in 1673, he gave to two of them (Lord Culpepper and Earl of Arlington) "all the dominion of land and water called Virginia" for thirty years.

The best men in the colony of both parties, alarmed by this proceeding, sent a committee with a remonstrance to the King, but the mission was fruitless. The republicans were very indignant. Rebellious murmurs were heard everywhere in the colony; and the toiling people were taught to regard the aristocracy as their enemies, and so the majority of them were. Having a majority in the legislature of the colony, they ruled without any regard for the happiness of the people. Everything for the public good was neglected. There were no roads or bridges in Virginia; and the people were compelled to travel along bridle-paths on land, and to ford or swim the streams. They journeyed on the water in canoes or boats, and endured many hardships. The working-people lived in log-cabins with unglazed windows. There were no villages. At the time, Jamestown, the capital, consisted of only a church, a State-house, and eighteen dwellings; and, until lately, the Assembly had met in the hall of an alehouse. This was about seventy years after the founding of the colony, when it contained 50,000 inhabitants. The large landowners—the aristocracy—meanwhile were living in luxury in fine mansions, in sight of some beautiful river, surrounded by negro slaves and other dependants, and enjoying a sort of patriarchal life. The governor was clamoring for an increase of his salary, while his stables and fields had seventy horses in them, and flocks of sheep were on his great plantation, called "Green Spring." The tendency of such a state of society was obvious to every reflecting mind.

It was at this juncture that Bacon arrived in Virginia, and espoused the cause of the republicans. In the summer of 1675 the Indians, seeing their domain gradually absorbed by the encroaching white people, in their despair struck a heavy blow. As they swept from the North through Maryland, John Washington, grandfather of the first President of the United States, opposed them with a force of Virginians, and a fierce border war ensued. Berkeley, who had the monopoly of the fur-trade with the barbarians, treated the latter leniently. Six chiefs, who had come to camp to treat for peace, were treacherously slain by Englishmen. The wrathful savages strewed their pathway, in the country between the Rappahannock and James rivers, with the dead bodies of ten Englishmen for every chief

that was treacherously murdered, and blackened its face with fire. The supineness of the governor increased the sense of insecurity among the people, and a deputation headed by Bacon petitioned him for leave to arm and protect themselves. Berkeley, having reason, as he thought, to suspect Bacon of ambitious rather than patriotic motives (for he had been engaged in an insurrection before), refused to grant this prayer.

At this Bacon took fire. He knew the hidden cause of the refusal, and he at once proclaimed that he was ready to lead the people against the approaching invaders without permission, if another white person should be murdered by them. Very soon news reached him that some on his own plantation, near (present) Richmond, had been slain. He summoned the people to a consultation. Mounting a stump, he addressed them with impassioned eloquence, denounced the governor, and advised his hearers to take up arms in their own defence. They were soon embodied in military force, and chose Bacon as their general. He asked the governor to give him a commission as such, but was refused; and Bacon marched against the Indians without it. Before he had reached York River, the governor proclaimed him a rebel, and ordered his followers to disperse. A greater portion of them followed Bacon's standard, and the expedition pushed forward; while the lower settlements arose in insurrection, and demanded an immediate dissolution of the aristocratic Assembly. The Indians were driven back to the Rappahannock, a new Assembly was chosen, and Bacon was elected to a seat in the House of Burgesses from Henrico county.

The new House represented the popular will. They gave Bacon a commission as general, but Berkeley refused to sign it. Some of the Assembly supported the governor in the matter, when Bacon, fearing treachery, retired to the "Middle Plantation" (now Williamsburg), where 500 followers proclaimed him commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces. With these he appeared at Jamestown, and demanded his commission. Regarding the movement as revolutionary, the governor again refused to sign it. The sturdy old cavalier went out in great anger before the insurgent chief, and baring his bosom, exclaimed, "Shoot! shoot! it is a fair mark!" Bacon said, respectfully, "Not a hair of your head shall be hurt; we have come for our commissions to save our lives from the Indians." The governor, influenced by his judgment when his anger had cooled, or by his fears, not only signed the commission, but joined his council in commending Bacon to the King as a zealous, loyal, and patriotic citizen. That was done on July 4, 1676, just 100 years before the famous Declaration of Independence, written by a Virginia "rebel," THOMAS JEFFERSON (*q. v.*), proclaimed the English-American colonies "free and independent States."

Bacon, so encouraged, immediately marched against the Indians. The faithless governor, relieved of his presence, crossed the York River, called a convention of the inhabitants of Gloucester county, and proposed to proclaim Bacon a traitor. The convention refused to do so, when the haughty baronet issued such a proclamation on his own responsibility, in spite of their remonstrances. The news of this perfidy reached Bacon at his camp on the Pamunky River. He addressed his followers with much warmth, saying, "It vexes me to the heart that, while I am hunting the wolves and tigers that destroy our lands, I should myself be pursued as a savage. Shall persons wholly devoted to their King and country—men who hazard their lives against the public enemy—deserve the appellation of 'rebels' and 'traitors'? The whole country is witness to our peaceable behavior. But those in authority, how have they obtained their estates? Have they not devoured the common treasury? What arts, what sciences, what learning have they promoted? I appeal to the King and Parliament, where the cause of the people will be heard impartially." Under the circumstances, Bacon felt himself compelled to lead in a revolution. He invited the Virginians to meet in convention at the Middle Plantation. The best men in the colony were there. They debated and deliberated on a warm August day from noon until midnight. Bacon's eloquence and logic led them to take an oath to support their leader in subduing the Indians and in preventing civil war;

and again he went against the barbarians. The governor, alarmed by the proceedings at the Middle Plantation, fled, with his council, to the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay, where, by promises of booty, he tried to raise an army among the inhabitants and the seamen of English vessels there. William Drummond, who had been the first governor of North Carolina, with his brave and patriotic wife, Sarah, was then with Bacon. Mrs. Drummond did much to incite the Virginians to go on in the path of revolution, and she was denounced as "a notorious, wicked rebel." Her husband proposed to Bacon to proclaim government in the colony abdicated by Berkeley on account of his act. It was suggested that a power would come from England that would ruin the republicans in the colony. Sarah snatched up a small stick from the ground, and exclaimed, "I fear the power of England no more than a broken straw. The child that is unborn shall have cause to rejoice for the good that will come by the rising of the country." The proclamation of abdication was made, on the ground that the governor was fomenting civil war; and writs were issued for a representative convention.

THE OLD CHURCH TOWER AT JAMESTOWN, IN 1850.

Meanwhile Berkeley had gathered a motley host of followers incited by promises of plunder; proclaimed the freedom of the slaves of "rebels"; was joined by some Indians from the eastern shore, and the English ships were placed at his service. With this army, commanded by Major Beverly, the governor sailed with five ships and ten sloops, and landed at Jamestown early in September, 1676, where, after piously offering thanksgiving in the church, he proclaimed Bacon a traitor. Bacon was surprised, for he had then few followers in camp; but his ranks swelled rapidly as the news went from plantation to plantation. At the head of a considerable host of patriotic Virginians, he marched towards Jamestown, seizing by the way as hostages the wives of loyalists who were with Berkeley. The republicans appeared before the capital on a moonlit evening, and cast up intrenchments. In vain the governor urged his motley troops to attack them; they were not made of stuff for soldiers. Finally, the royalists stole away in the night, and compelled the indignant governor to follow them, when Bacon entered Jamestown, and assumed the reins of civil power. Very soon he was startled by a rumor that the royalists of the upper counties were coming down upon him. In a council of war it was agreed to burn the capital. The torch was applied at the twilight of a soft September day, and the next morning nothing was left but the brick tower of the church and a few chimneys (see JAMESTOWN). Then Bacon hastened to meet the approaching royalists, who, not disposed to fight, deserted their leader and joined the "rebels." At the same time the royalists of Gloucester yielded their allegiance to Bacon, and he resolved to cross the Chesapeake and drive the royalists and Berkeley from Virginia. His plans were suddenly frustrated by a foe deadlier than the malignity of the royalists who opposed him. The malaria from the

marshes around Jamestown in September had poisoned his blood, and on Oct. 11, 1676, he died of malignant fever. His followers made but feeble resistance thereafter; and before November Berkeley returned to the Peninsula and resumed the functions of government at the Middle Plantation, which was made the capital of Virginia (see WILLIAMSBURG). Bacon had failed; yet those "do not fail who die in a good cause." His name is embalmed in history as a *rebel;* had he succeeded, he would have been immortalized as a *patriot.* His principal followers were very harshly treated by the soured governor, and for a while terror reigned in Virginia. The rebellion cost the colony $500,000. See BERKELEY, SIR WILLIAM.

Bacon's Rebellion. See BACON, NATHANIEL.

Bad Axe, BATTLE AT. See BLACK HAWK.

Badeau, ADAM, military officer; born in New York, Dec. 29, 1831; served on the staff of General Sherman early in the Civil War; was severely wounded at Port Hudson; became General Grant's military secretary in January, 1864; aide-de-camp to the general of the army in March, 1865; retired in 1869, holding the rank of brevet brigadier-general, U. S. V. He was consul-general in London in 1870–81, and was consul-general in Havana in 1882–84. He published *Military History of U. S. Grant; Grant in Peace,* etc. He died in Ridgewood, N. J., March, 19, 1895.

Badgar, OSCAR CHARLES, naval officer; born in Windham, Conn., Aug. 12, 1823; served throughout the Mexican and Civil wars; retired as commodore in 1885; died June 20, 1899.

Badger, GEORGE EDMUND, statesman; born in Newbern, N. C., April 13, 1795; member of the State legislature, 1816–20; judge of the North Carolina Superior Court, 1820–25; appointed Secretary of the Navy by President Harrison, 1841; United States Senator, 1846–55; opposed secession of North Carolina in 1861. He died in Raleigh, N. C., May 11, 1866.

Badger State, a name popularly given to the State of Wisconsin on account of the number of badgers found there by the early settlers.

Bad Lands, THE, "Mauvaises Terres," of the old French fur-traders' dialect, are an extensive tract in the Dakotas, Wyoming, and northwestern Nebraska, between the North Fork of the Platte and the South Fork of the Cheyenne rivers, west, south, and southeast of the Black Hills. It lies mostly between long. 103° and 105° N., with an area as yet not perfectly defined, but estimated to cover about 60,000 square miles. There are similar lands in the Green River region, of which Fort Bridger is the centre, and in southeastern Oregon. They belong to the Miocene period, geologically speaking. The surface materials are for the most part white and yellowish indurated clays, sands, marls, and occasional thin beds of lime and sandstone. The locality is fitly described as one of the most wonderful regions of the globe. It is held by geologists that during the geological period named a vast fresh-water lake system covered this portion of our continent, when the comparatively soft materials which compose the present surface were deposited. As these lakes drained off, after the subsidence of the plains farther east, resulting in the formation of the Missouri Valley, the original lake beds were worn into canyons that wind in every conceivable direction. Here and there abrupt, almost perpendicular portions of the ancient beds remain in all imaginable forms, some resembling the ruins of abandoned cities. "Towers, spires, cathedrals, obelisks, pyramids, and monuments" of various shapes appear on every side, as far as the eye can range. Dr. Hayden, the earliest explorer of this region, said: "Not unfrequently the rising or setting sun will light up these grand old ruins with a wild, strange beauty, reminding one of a city illuminated in the night, as seen from some high point. The harder layers project from the sides of the canyons with such regularity that they appear like seats of some vast weird amphitheatre." Through all this country rainfall is very light; the earth absorbs the most of what rain does fall, and water and grass are very scanty. The surface-rock is so soft that it disintegrates rapidly, covering the lower grounds in many places to a depth of several feet with a soft, powdery soil into which animals sink as in snow, while when wet it becomes a stiff mud of impassable depth. These lands are plainly unsuited for agriculture,

and with rare exceptions, here and there, are of little value for grazing purposes. They are, however, one of the most astonishing treasuries of fossil remains to be found anywhere. The soft clayey deposits are in some places literally filled with the bones of extinct species of the horse, rhinoceros, elephant, hog, camel, a deer that strongly resembled a hog, sabre-toothed lions, and other marvellous creatures, which have rendered this section of the earth a study of the highest interest to geologists of all lands.

Baffin, WILLIAM, navigator; said to have been born in London about 1584. He made voyages to West Greenland in 1612–15, and to Spitzbergen in 1614. In 1616 he commanded a vessel which reached, it is said, lat. 81° 30′ N., and is supposed to have ascertained the limits of the great bay that bears his name. He was the author of two books, in the first of which he gave a new method of discovering the longitude at sea by an observation of the stars. He was killed by the Portuguese at the siege of Ormuz, May 23, 1622.

Bagley, WORTH, naval officer; born in Raleigh, N. C., April 6, 1874; was graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1895. After serving two years on the *Montgomery*, *Texas*, and the *Maine*, he was made ensign July 1, 1897. He was a short time on the *Indiana*, and then became the executive clerk of Capt. Charles D. Sigsbee on the *Maine*. In November, 1897, he was appointed inspector of the new torpedo-boat *Winslow*, and when she went into commission on Dec. 28, he was made her executive officer, under Lieut. J. B. Bernadou, her commander. In April, 1898, the *Winslow* was with the fleet mobilized for operations in Cuban waters. On the morning of May 11 she prepared, with the *Hudson* and *Wilmington*, to force an entrance to the harbor of Cardenas. She was fired upon by one of several Spanish gunboats, and immediately there was a general engagement. The *Winslow* was soon disabled, and was with difficulty hauled out of range of the Spanish guns. Just as the engagement ended, Ensign Bagley and four sailors were killed by a shell, he being the first American naval officer to fall in the war with Spain.

Bagot-Rush Treaty. See RUSH-BAGOT.

Bahama Islands, THE, were granted by Charles II. (1667) to the eight courtiers to whom he granted the Carolinas. They had sent William Sayle to bring them some account of the Carolina coast. His vessel was driven by a storm among the Bahama Islands. There he gained much knowledge of them, especially of New Providence, which had a good harbor. On his return to England, King Charles gave a patent for the Bahamas to the proprietors of Carolina. At that time these islands were uninhabited, and the group was a favorite resort for buccaneers. In 1776 Commodore Hopkins captured New Providence, but soon abandoned it as untenable. During our Civil War the islands were the headquarters of the blockade-runners, which were chiefly British ships. See BLOCKADE-RUNNERS.

Bailey, GULDFORD DUDLEY, military officer; born at Martinsburg, Lewis co., N. Y., June 4, 1834; was graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered, as lieutenant, the 2d Artillery, then stationed at Fort Ontario, Oswego, N. Y., where, in 1858, he married a daughter of Col. G. W. Patten, U. S. A. He was afterwards stationed at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., and when the Civil War began he was acting adjutant of the post at Fort Brown, Texas, whose commander, Captain Stoneman, refused to surrender to the Confederates of Texas in obedience to the orders of General Twiggs. Captain Stoneman chartered a steamboat, and, after securing the most valuable public property there, evacuated the fort and sailed for New York, where he arrived March 15, 1861. Soon afterwards Lieutenant Bailey was sent with reinforcements for Fort Pickens. His mission was successful. Sickness finally compelled him to return to New York to recruit his strength. Soon afterwards he was requested by Governor Morgan to organize a State regiment of light artillery, of which he was made colonel. With these troops, which he had well disciplined at Elmira, he went to Washington, and in the spring of 1862 he joined the Army of the Potomac at Fort Monroe. At the battle of FAIR OAKS, or SEVEN PINES (*q. v.*), Colonel Bailey was in General Casey's division. When the sudden and furious attack was made, the infantry

fell back, leaving Colonel Bailey's battery exposed. Instead of retreating and leaving his guns in the hands of the Confederates, he determined to make their spoils useless to them. Leaping from his horse, he was in the act of spiking one of the guns with his own hand, when the bullet of a sharp-shooter penetrated his brain, and he fell dead, May 31, 1862.

Bailey, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Salem, O., April 28, 1827; entered the Union army as a private in 1861; acquired great fame by his skill in damming the Red River at Alexandria (May, 1864), by which the squadron of iron-clad gunboats, under Admiral Porter, was enabled to pass down the rapids there when the water was low. He had been a lumberman in Wisconsin, and in that business had learned the practical part which he used in his engineering at Alexandria, where he was acting chief-engineer of the 19th Army Corps. Other engineers said his proposition to dam the river was absurd, but in eleven days the boats, by his method, passed safely down. For this achievement he was promoted to colonel, brevetted brigadier-general, voted the thanks of Congress, and presented with a sword and $3,000 by the officers of the fleet. He settled in Missouri after the war, where he was a formidable enemy of the "bushwhackers," and was shot by them in Nevada, in that State, on March 21, 1867.

Bailey, JOSEPH WELDEN, legislator; born in Copiah county, Miss., Oct. 6, 1863; was admitted to the bar in 1883; became a Democratic district elector in 1884; removed to Gainesville, Tex., and there engaged in general practice in 1885; and was Presidential elector at large in 1888. He was elected representative in Congress from the 5th Texas District in 1891, and by re-elections held his seat till March 4, 1901, when he entered the United States Senate as successor to Horace Chilton, having been elected on Jan. 23, preceding. In 1897, on the organization of the 55th Congress, he was the Democratic nominee for Speaker of the House, and a minority member of the Committee on Rules. In the Senate he was a member of the committees on Fisheries, Foreign Relations, Privileges and Elections, Relations with Canada, Revision of the Laws, Territories, and the Census.

Bailey, THEODORUS, naval officer; born in Chateaugay, Franklin co., N. Y., April 12, 1805; entered the navy as midshipman in January, 1818, and was captain in 1855. In July, 1862, he was made commodore, and in July, 1866, rear-admiral on the retired list. In 1861 Captain Bailey was in command of the *Colorado*, in the Western Gulf squadron, and was second in command of the expedition under Butler and Farragut up the Mississippi to capture New Orleans, in the spring of 1862. His vessel was too large to pass the bar, and taking what men and guns he could spare, he went up the river in his boats as a volunteer, and assumed the command of the first division. He led in the desperate attack on Fort St. Philip, Fort Jackson, and the Confederate flotilla. It was one of the most gallant naval operations of the war; and Admiral Farragut specially commended Captain Bailey as the leader in that attack. In 1862 he was in command of the Eastern Gulf squadron, and was successful in breaking up blockade-running on the Florida coast. He captured about 150 of those vessels in the space of a year and a half. In 1865–67 he was in command of the navy-yard at Portsmouth. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 10, 1877.

Bailey, WILLIAM HENRY, lawyer; born in Pasquatauk county, N. C., Jan. 22, 1831; was elected and appointed to many offices in his native State; removed to Texas in 1891; is the author of *The Effect of Civil War Upon the Rights of Persons and Property; Conflict of Judicial Decisions,* etc.

Bainbridge, WILLIAM, naval officer; born in Princeton, N. J., May 7, 1774. At the age of sixteen years he went to sea, and at nineteen commanded a ship. On the reorganization of the navy in 1798 he was appointed a lieutenant. He and his vessel and crew were captured in the West Indies by a French cruiser in September of that year, but were released in December, when, returning home, he was promoted to the command of a brig. In May, 1800, he was commissioned a captain, and in the ship *Washington* he carried tribute from the United States to the Dey of Algiers, by whom he was treated with much insolence. By threats of capture and a declaration of war by the Algerine ruler,

he was compelled to take an embassy to Constantinople for that petty despot. On his return, with power given him by the

WILLIAM BAINBRIDGE.

Sultan, Bainbridge frightened the insolent Dey, compelling him to release all Christian prisoners then in his possession. He returned to the United States in 1801, and he was again sent to the Mediterranean with the frigate *Essex*. Upon the declaration of war against the United States by Tripoli, in 1803, Bainbridge was put in command of the *Philadelphia*, one of Preble's squadron. On Oct. 11 the *Philadelphia* struck on a rock near Tripoli, and was captured, with her commander and crew. At Tripoli Bainbridge and 315 of his men remained prisoners about nineteen months. On his return to the United States, he was received with great respect, and in the reorganization of the navy, in 1806, he became the seventh in the list of captains. Having obtained the rank of commodore, Bainbridge was appointed to the command of a squadron (September, 1812) composed of the *Constitution* (flagship), *Essex*, and *Hornet*, and sailed from Boston in October. Off the coast of Brazil the *Constitution* captured the British frigate *Java* (Dec. 26); and for this exploit the commodore received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. Other honors were bestowed upon him. In 1815 he was appointed to the command of a squadron of twenty sail, destined for ALGIERS (*q. v.*), but peace was concluded before it reached the Mediterranean. He settled disputes with the Barbary States; and he again commanded in the Mediterranean in 1819–21. From that time he was almost constantly employed in service on shore, being at one time president of the Board of Navy Commissioners. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., July 28, 1833, and in that city was buried in Christ church-yard.

BAINBRIDGE MEDAL.

Baird, ABSALOM, military officer; born in Washington, Pa., Aug. 20, 1824; was

graduated at West Point in 1849, having studied law before he entered the military academy. He was ordered to Washington,

BAINBRIDGE'S MONUMENT.

D. C., in March, 1861, and in May was made assistant adjutant-general. He became aide to General Tyler in the battle of Bull Run, and in November was made assistant inspector-general, with the rank of major. In March, 1862, he became General Keys's chief of staff; and in April he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and sent to Kentucky. He commanded a division under General Granger in April, 1863, and was afterwards active in northern Georgia and in the Atlanta campaign. In Sherman's march to the sea he commanded a division of the 14th Army Corps, and also in the advance through the Carolinas. He was brevetted major-general, U. S. A., in March, 1865; promoted brigadier-general and inspector-general in 1885; and retired in 1888.

Baird, Henry Martyn, educator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 17, 1832; became Professor of Greek in the New York University in 1859; wrote a number of books upon the Huguenots in France and in America.

Baird, Spencer Fullerton, scientist; born in Reading, Pa., Feb. 3, 1823; was graduated at Dickinson College in 1840. In 1850 he was appointed assistant secretary to the Smithsonian Institution. He held that office until the death of Prof. Joseph Henry (*q. v.*) in 1878, when he succeeded to the office of secretary, which he held until his death, on Aug. 19, 1887. Professor Baird published several works on natural history. In 1871 he was placed at the head of the United States Fish Commission. He died in Wood's Holl, Mass., Aug. 19, 1887.

Baker, Edward Dickinson, military officer; born in London, England, Feb. 24, 1811. His family came to the United States when he was a young child, and settled first in Philadelphia and afterwards (1825) in Illinois. Young Baker chose the law for a vocation, and entered upon its practice in Green county, Ill. In 1837, while residing in Springfield, he was elected to the legislature. He was a State Senator in 1840–44, and then a member of Congress until the beginning of the war with Mexico. In that war (1846–47) he served as colonel of Illinois

EDWARD DICKINSON BAKER.

volunteers, and was again elected to Congress in 1848. He settled in California in

1852, where he became distinguished in his profession, and as an orator in the ranks of the REPUBLICAN PARTY (*q. v.*). In 1859 he removed to Oregon, where he was elected United States Senator in 1860. He was in that service at the outbreak of the Civil War, when he raised a body of troops in New York and Philadelphia. Those of Pennsylvania were called the "1st California Regiment." Declining to be appointed general, he went into the field as colonel at the head of his regiment. While fighting at Ball's Bluff, in Virginia, he was shot dead, Oct. 21, 1861. See BALL'S BLUFF, BATTLE OF.

Baker, LAFAYETTE C., detective; born in Stafford, N. Y., Oct. 13, 1826; was a member of the vigilance committee in San Francisco in 1856; offered his services to the federal government in 1861; and was sent to Richmond, where he succeeded in collecting much information, and returned to Washington within a month. While in Richmond he was arrested and imprisoned as a spy, and had several interviews with the President of the Confederacy. When the secret-service bureau was transferred to the War Department, he was appointed its chief, with the rank of colonel, and subsequently was promoted brigadier-general. When President Lincoln was shot by Booth, General Baker organized pursuit, and was present at Booth's capture and death. He published *History of the United States Secret Service.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., July 2, 1868.

Baker, MARCUS, cartographer; born in Kalamazoo, Mich., Sept. 23, 1849; was graduated at the University of Michigan in 1870. He became connected with the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey in 1873; and with the United States Geological Survey in 1886. He has made extended explorations in Alaska and on the Pacific coast, and was the cartographer of the Venezuelan Boundary Commission. In 1900 he was secretary of the United States Board on Geographic Names. He has published many geographical and mathematical monographs, and, with Prof. William H. Dall, brought out the *Alaska Coast Pilot.*

Baker, REMEMBER, a captain of "GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS" (*q. v.*); born in Woodbury, Conn., about 1740. He went to the New Hampshire Grants in 1764, before the Allens took up their abode there. He was a soldier in the French and Indian War, and was in the fierce battle at Ticonderoga in 1758. He settled at Arlington, on "the Grants," and was very active with Ethan Allen in resisting the claims of New York to Vermont territory. Baker was arrested, and was cruelly treated while a prisoner, by the New-Yorkers. The government of that province had outlawed him and set a price upon his head. Captain Baker was with Allen when he took Ticonderoga, in May, 1775. He was killed, while on a scout in the Continental service, by the Indians on the Sorel, the outlet of Lake Champlain, in August, 1775.

Balance of Trade, a phrase employed in commerce to express the difference between the value of a country's exports and its imports. When the exports of a country exceed its imports the balance of trade is popularly said to be in favor of that country. Leaving to others the discussion of the controversial questions as to whether free-trade or protection is best for a country, and whether a decrease in importations indicates an increase in the prosperity of a country through larger local productions, attention is here called to the fact that in recent years the United States has exported much more than it imported. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, the official statistics of the United States Treasury Department showed for these two movements of merchandise the following: Exports, domestic, $1,370,476,158; foreign, $23,710,213; a total of $1,394,186,371; total imports, $849,714,670; showing a balance in merchandise of $544,471,651. During the same period the trade in gold and silver coin and bullion was: Exports, $106,978,504; imports, $78,066,154; showing a balance in this trade in favor of the United States of $28,912,350; making the balance of all trade, or the excess of exports over imports, during that fiscal year, $573,384,001. See COMMERCE; FREE TRADE; PROTECTION.

Balboa, VASCO NUNEZ DE, discoverer of the Pacific Ocean; born in Xeres de los Caballeros, Spain, in 1475; went to Santo Domingo in 1501; and thence to

the Isthmus of Darien in 1510. Pope Alexander VI. (*q. v.*) gave to the Spanish crown, as God's vicegerent on the earth, all lands that lay 300 leagues westward of the Azores—in fact, all of America. Ferdinand of Spain divided Central America, whose shores Columbus had discovered, into two provinces, over one of which he placed as governor Ojeda, the navigator, and over the other Diego de Nicuessa, with Bachelor Enciso as lieutenant. Nuñez, deeply in debt in Santo Domingo, escaped from his creditors by being carried in a provision-cask on board Enciso's ship. When she had weighed anchor Nuñez came from his cask. Enciso, angered by the deception, threatened him, but became reconciled. At Darien, where the seat of government was to be established, Nuñez, taking advantage of the discontent of the Spaniards, headed a revolt. When Nicuessa came, they defied him and sent him adrift in a crazy vessel; and Enciso, seeing no chance for subduing the insurgents, went back to Spain with loud complaints against Nuñez, and the Spanish government sent out Davila, with a fleet and troops, as governor of Darien.

Meanwhile Nuñez had become a great discoverer. The cacique, or Indian ruler, of a neighboring district, named Caveta, had treated two Spaniards with great kindness, who requited his hospitality by advising Nuñez to attack and plunder him, for he had much gold. While the people of Caveta's village were slumbering, Nuñez and his followers entered it and carried off the cacique and his whole family and others, and, with considerable booty, returned to Darien. Caveta and Nuñez soon became friends. The former gave his young and beautiful daughter to the Spanish adventurer as his wife, and she acquired great influence over her husband. While visiting a powerful cacique, a friendly neighbor of Caveta, Nuñez was told that beyond the mountains was a mighty sea that could be seen from their summits, and that the rivers that flowed down the slopes of the mountains on the other side abounded with gold; also that along the coast of that sea was a country where gold was as plentiful as iron. This story was confirmed by others, and finally Nuñez, with nearly 200 men and a number of bloodhounds, set out for the tops of the mountains. On Nov. 26, 1513, Nuñez and his men were near the bold rocky summit of a mountain. The leader ascended it alone, when he beheld a mighty sea. It was the Pacific Ocean. On that summit he and his followers set up a huge cross, and then descended to the shore of the sea. Wading into its waters, Nuñez took formal possession of the great ocean in the name of his sovereign. After that he made voyages along its coast, and heard tidings of Peru, where the Incas, or rulers, drank out of golden vessels. After Davila came, Nuñez was falsely accused of traitorous intentions by his jealous successor and rival, and he was beheaded at Acla, near Darien, in 1517. So perished the discoverer of the Pacific Ocean.

Balcarres, Alexander Lindsay, Earl, British military officer; born in Scotland in 1752; served three years in America under Carleton and Burgoyne, and was captured with the latter at Saratoga. At the battle of Hubbardton, where he was wounded, thirteen balls passed through his clothes. He was made major-general in 1793; lieutenant-governor of Jamaica in 1794; general in 1803; and subsequently one of the representative peers from Scotland. He died in London, March 27, 1825.

Balch, George Beall, naval officer; born in Tennessee, Jan. 3, 1821. He entered the navy in 1837; engaged in the war against Mexico, and was wounded in a naval engagement at Shanghai, China. He was engaged actively and successfully in the South Atlantic blockading squadrons and in other naval operations. He became rear-admiral in 1878, and retired in 1883.

Baldwin, Abraham, legislator; born in Guilford, Conn., Nov. 6, 1754; originated the University of Georgia, and was its president for several years; was a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1785–88, and a member of the Constitutional Convention in 1787. In 1789–99 he was a Representative in Congress, and was then elected to the United States Senate, of which he was president *pro tem.* in 1801–02. He died in Washington, D. C., March 4, 1807.

Baldwin, Charles H., naval officer; born in New York City, Sept. 3, 1822; en-

tered the navy in 1839; served through the Mexican War on the frigate *Congress;* commanded the steamer *Clifton* of the mortar flotilla at the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip below New Orleans, and in the first attack on Vicksburg, both in 1862; was promoted rear-admiral in 1883; and was the official representative of the United States at the coronation of the Emperor of Russia. He died in New York City, Nov. 17, 1888.

Baldwin, HENRY, historian; born in New York City, Feb. 1, 1832; was elected by the convention of Patriotic Organizations in Chicago in 1891 to verify "all the facts of American history" and to collect a Library Americana to be deposited at Washington. He has devoted his entire time to this work.

Baldwin, THEODORE A., military officer; born in New Jersey, Dec. 31, 1839; entered the army in 1862; served through the Civil War; became lieutenant-colonel, 10th United States Cavalry, in 1896; was a brigadier-general of volunteers in the American-Spanish War; and was promoted to colonel of the 7th United States Cavalry, May 6, 1899.

Baler, a town in the eastern part of Luzon, Philippine Islands, nearly midway between Balintang Channel and Bernardino Strait, and directly north of a notable mountain of the same name. In 1898–99 the Filipino insurgents besieged a Spanish garrison here for nearly a year, the Spanish commander declining to surrender the place even when directed to do so by orders from Madrid. The garrison took possession of the native church, fortified it, and held possession till their supplies gave out, when they surrendered, and, in recognition of their exceptional heroism, were allowed to march out of the place with all the honors of war, July 2, 1899. The town was occupied and garrisoned by United States troops in March, 1900.

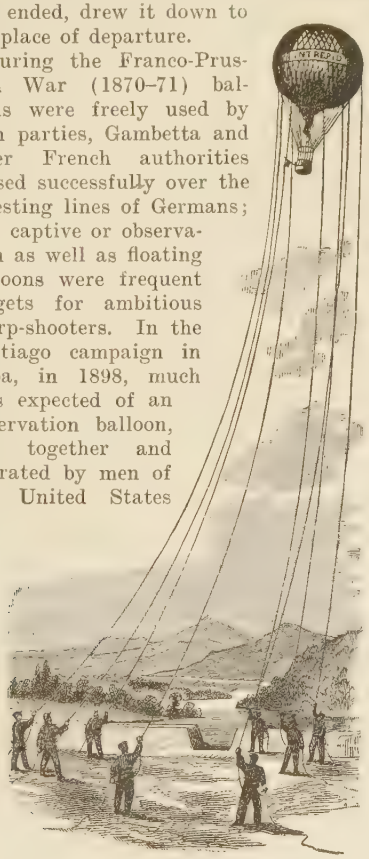
Balfour, NISBET, British military officer; born in Dunbog, Scotland, in 1743. He was a son of an auctioneer and bookseller in Edinburgh; entered the British army as an ensign in 1761; commanded a company in 1770; was wounded at the battle of Bunker Hill in June, 1775, and again in the battle of Long Island. He was sent home with despatches after the capture of New York in 1776, and was brevetted major in November following. Served under Lord Cornwallis in Pennsylvania and the Carolinas; and was in command at Charleston in 1781, when he reluctantly obeyed the command of Lord Rawdon to execute ISAAC HAYNE (*q. v.*). He was then lieutenant-colonel. He was made colonel and aide-de-camp to his king in 1782, a major-general in 1793, lieutenant-general in 1798, and general in 1803. He died in Dunbog, Oct. 10, 1823.

Ball, THOMAS, sculptor; born in Charlestown, Mass., June 3, 1819; educated at Mayhew School, Boston. In 1840–52 he applied himself to painting, but in 1851 undertook sculpture. He designed and executed the equestrian statue of Washington in Boston, the statue of Daniel Webster in Central Park, New York, and other similar works. In 1891–98 he was engaged on a monument of Washington for Methuen, Mass. He became an honorary fellow of the National Sculptors' Society in 1896. He is the author of *My Three-Score Years and Ten: an Autobiography,* which attracted much attention.

Balloons in War. At the beginning of the Civil War the telegraphic operations of the army were intrusted to Maj. Thomas T. Eckert. In this connection T. S. C. Lowe, a distinguished aëronaut, was employed, and for some time balloons were used with great efficiency in reconnoitring, but later in the progress of the war they fell into disuse. At the height of 500 feet above Arlington House, opposite Washington, D. C., Mr. Lowe telegraphed to President Lincoln as follows, in June, 1861: "Sir, from this point of observation we command an extent of country nearly 50 miles in diameter. I have pleasure in sending you the first telegram ever despatched from an aërial station, and acknowledging indebtedness to your encouragement for the opportunity of demonstrating the availability of the science of aëronautics in the service of the country." After sending the above despatch, Mr. Lowe was invited to the Executive Mansion and introduced to General Scott; and he was soon afterwards employed in the military service. When in use, the balloon was kept under control

by strong cords in the hands of men on the ground, who, when the reconnoissance was ended, drew it down to the place of departure.

During the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71) balloons were freely used by both parties, Gambetta and other French authorities passed successfully over the investing lines of Germans; and captive or observation as well as floating balloons were frequent targets for ambitious sharp-shooters. In the Santiago campaign in Cuba, in 1898, much was expected of an observation balloon, put together and operated by men of the United States



WAR BALLOON.

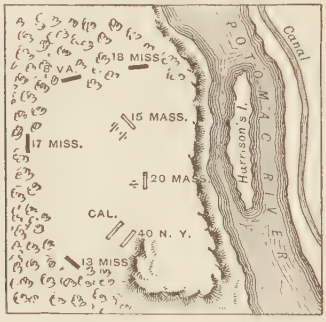
Signal Service. Several successful ascensions were made, and messages describing the situation of the Spaniards were transmitted to General Shafter's headquarters. It was found that there were large possibilities in the use of balloons for military purposes, but that there were ever-present elements of danger. The Santiago balloon rendered good service at a critical time, but was destroyed by a Spanish shot.

Ballot Reform. The agitation in favor of a system of election laws which should prevent corruption, bribery, and intimidation at the polls began in the United States in 1887. Four years thereafter twenty-eight out of the forty-eight State and Territorial legislatures had enacted laws providing for ballot reform. The method of voting prescribed by most of these enactments was essentially that known as the Australian system, from the fact of its having originated in South Australia some thirty-five years previously. It was adopted in England in 1872. Its primary object is to secure absolute secrecy in voting. Its peculiar and essential features are, first, an official ballot, and, second, privacy in voting. By an official ballot is meant a ticket which has been printed and furnished by State or local authorities, and is given to the voter by a special official. Privacy in voting is secured by different means, such as voting booths, enclosed stalls, and other devices for concealing the voter from view. The good effects of this system were immediately apparent in the States where it was adopted, promoting good order and decency at the polls, and greatly diminishing the opportunities for fraud and intimidation. In the system in vogue in most States the names of all candidates are on a single ticket, and the voter indicates his choice by a cross (×). This system in the Presidential election of 1896 was used in thirty-six States, and seems likely to be universally adopted. Various voting machines have been tried since 1890, but none have as yet proven sufficiently satisfactory to warrant their general use.

Ballou, Maturin Murray, journalist; born in Boston, Mass., April 14, 1820; was educated in the Boston High School. In 1838 he entered journalism on the *Olive Branch,* a weekly. Later he became proprietor and editor of *Ballou's Monthly* and *Gleason's Pictorial.* He became one of the founders of the Boston *Daily Globe* in 1872, and for many years was its chief editor. He also had a part or whole interest in *Ballou's Pictorial; The Flag of Our Union,* and the Boston *Sunday Budget.* His works include *Due West; Due South; Due North; Under the Southern Cross; The New El Dorado; Aztec Land; The Story of Malta; Equatorial America; Biography of the Rev. Hosea Ballou.* He died in Cairo, Egypt, March 27, 1895.

Ball's Bluff, Battle at. In October, 1861, a National force, commanded by Gen. Charles P. Stone, was encamped between Edward's and Conrad's ferries, on

the Maryland side of the upper Potomac, while the left wing of the Confederate army, under General Evans, lay at Leesburg, in Virginia. Misinformation had caused a belief that the Confederates had left Leesburg at a little past the middle of October, when General McClellan ordered General McCall, who commanded the advance of the right of the National forces in Virginia, to move forward and occupy Drainesville. At the same time he ordered General Stone to co-operate with General McCall, which he did by



MAP OF BALL'S BLUFF.

making a feint of crossing the river at the two ferries above named on the afternoon of Sunday, Oct. 20. At the same time part of a Massachusetts regiment, under Colonel Devens (see DEVENS, CHARLES), was ordered to take post upon Harrison's Island, in the Potomac, abreast of Ball's Bluff. Devens went to the island with four companies in flat-boats taken from the Chesapeake and Ohio canal. About 3,000 men, under COL. EDWARD D. BAKER (*q. v.*), of the national Senate, acting as brigadier-general, were held in readiness as a reserve in case of a battle. With that reserve was a fine body of Pennsylvanians known as the "1st California Regiment." These movements of the Nationals caused an opposing one on the part of the Confederates, who had watched their antagonists with keen vigilance at a point of concealment not far off. Misinformed as to the position of the Confederates and supposing McCall to be near enough to give aid if necessary, Stone, on the morning of the 21st, ordered some Massachusetts troops under Colonels Lee and Devens to cross to the Virginia shore from Harrison's Island to reconnoitre. They did not find the foe in the neighborhood.

General Evans, unperceived, lay not far off; and riflemen and cavalry were hovering near and waiting a favorable opportunity to strike Devens, who, leaving a part of Lee's command near the Bluff, had advanced to near Leesburg. After a skirmish, in which he lost one man killed and nine wounded, he fell back towards the Bluff. While halting in an open field, he received orders from Stone to remain there until support could be sent him. His entire force consisted of only 600 men. They were very soon attacked by the Confederates. It was a little past noon. Pressed by overwhelming numbers, Devens fell back to avoid being flanked. Meanwhile Colonel Baker had been pressing forward from Conrad's Ferry to the relief of the assailed troops. Ranking Devens, he had been ordered to Harrison's Island, with discretionary powers to reinforce the party on the Virginia main or to withdraw all the troops to the Maryland side of the river. He concluded to go forward, supposing the forces of McCall and others to be near. He was ignorant of the fact that General McClellan had ordered McCall to fall back from Drainesville.

On reaching the field of conflict, Baker took the chief command of all the forces on the Bluff, about 1,700 strong. Very soon afterwards, while he was in the thickest of the fight encouraging his men, a bullet pierced his brain and he fell dead. The battle had lasted two hours. His troops, unsupported by others, were crushed by superior numbers. Pressed back to the verge of the Bluff, which there rises more than 100 feet above the river, they fought desperately for a while at twilight, for they had no means for crossing the swollen flood. They were soon overpowered. Some had been pushed down the declivity. Many were made prisoners, and many perished in trying to escape by swimming in the dark. Some were shot in the water, and others were drowned. A flat-boat laden with the wounded was riddled with bullets and sank. In this affair the Nationals lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, fully 1,000 men. The Confederates lost 153 killed. The number of their wounded is unknown.

Baltimore, city, port of entry, commercial metropolis of Maryland, and sixth city in the United States in population according to the Federal census of 1900; on the Patapsco River fourteen miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay; about 200 hundred miles from the Atlantic Ocean and thirty-eight miles northeast of Washington, D. C.; popularly known as the "Monumental City"; population, 1900, 508,957; 1905 (estimated), 541,000. It is situated on an attractive harbor, having an inner basin and an outer bay, the latter defended by the historic Fort McHenry. In the development of its commercial interests the city has been retarded greatly, particularly under the business pressure of the last ten years, by the lack of sufficient depth of water to permit the approach of steamships directly to the wharves and by the restricted limits of the wharves themselves. In the rebuilding of the city after the fire of February, 1904, the need of improved harbor facilities was recognized, and a system of water-front changes was planned that will eventually allow the largest ocean steamers to be docked within three miles of the business centre of the city.

Prior to the fire, ships bearing 5,000 tons of cargo could not go within a mile of the upper or city end of the harbor. The new system involves the deepening of the channel and the construction of new wharves ranging in length from 550 to 1,450 feet, and in width from 150 to 210 feet, each slip being 150 feet wide, the larger piers being thus able to accommodate two steamships on each side at the same time. To further promote shipping the streets along the water front will be reconstructed so as to range in width from 60 to 150 feet each. The value of this improvement, as well as its necessity, will appear more vividly in the light of the commercial statistics that are given further on.

Public Interests.—The city has an area of 30¼ square miles, and is divided for administrative purposes into twenty-four wards. It was originally laid out in half-acre lots, and its streets are mostly on the rectangular plan. Jones's Falls, a small stream spanned by handsome bridges, traverses the city, and several lines of railroad, including the great trunk arteries, the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore & Ohio, and the Wabash, connect it with every important city on the continent. The principal business streets prior to the fire were Baltimore, extending east and west, Lexington, Howard, North Eutaw, North Charles, Hanover, and South Howard streets, and Hopkins Place, and the most attractive residential section was that bounded by Biddle, Calvert, and Franklin streets, and Park Avenue.

The general plan for the rebuilding of the burned section provided for that locality and its vicinity the straightening and widening of a number of important thoroughfares, the introduction of a more imposing style of architecture for public and business buildings, and a scenic embellishment of convenient spots; hence the Baltimore of the very near future will have a much different appearance from the one that was baptized with fire in 1904.

The public utilities include 430 miles of streets, of which 381 miles are paved; annual cost of cleaning, about $197,000; 43¾ miles of sewers; gas and electric lighting plants, owned by the city and costing annually about $296,000; a police department of 985 men, costing about $1,108,000; a fire department of 460 men, costing about $523,000; and a water-works system, owned by the city, with 670 miles of mains, having a daily storage capacity of 120,000,000 gallons and an average daily consumption of 63,000,000 gallons, and costing $12,000,000. The principal railroads pass through the city by a system of tunnels or subways, and in the Baltimore & Ohio tunnel trains are operated by electricity. The Baltimore & Potomac tunnel is 6,969 feet long, the Union tunnel, 3,410 feet; both were completed in 1873, at a cost of $4,500,000. The belt-line tunnel of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad extends under Howard Street for its entire length, and thence continues north of Huntington Avenue, and along the north side of the city. It furnishes the city with a rapid-transit system and enables the railroad to make direct connection with Philadelphia without the delays and annoyances of ferriage.

Baltimore takes much pride in its

beautiful public parks and squares. Of thirteen parks proper the largest is Druid Hill, 671¼ acres in extent, a model of rural beauty, that cost about $700,000. Clifton Park contains 254¾ acres and cost over $700,000; Patterson Park, 106 acres, cost $310,000; Carroll Park, 64¼ acres, cost $189,000; Wyman's Park, 45 acres, donated; Gwynns Falls Park, 29 acres, cost $16,000; and Riverside Park, 17¼ acres, cost $78,000.

MEETING-PLACE OF CONGRESS IN BALTIMORE IN 1776

The assessed property valuations in 1904 were: Real estate, $264,160,549; personal, $87,804,498;—total, $351,965,047; tax rate, $22.85 per $1,000; net public debt, $7,819,000; and annual cost of maintaining the city government, $10,142,725.

Commerce.—Notwithstanding the distance of the city from the ocean and its present restricted facilities, previously indicated, Baltimore has a large general trade promoted by its railroad and coastwise communications and a volume of foreign trade capable of much expansion under more favorable conditions. The extent of the latter trade is suggestively told in the statistics prepared in the United States Department of Commerce and Labor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904. They show that the total imports of merchandise at this port aggregated in value $20,345,788, of which $9,287,289 were dutiable; and the exports of merchandise were valued at $82,836,164, of which all excepting $15,288 was from domestic sources—home productions; making a total foreign trade of $103,181,952. The largest amounts of imports were from England, $6,163,884, and Germany, $3,964,635; and the largest shipments were to England, $24,328,177; Germany, $22,684,236; and the Netherlands, $12,767,692. In both trades the shipping entrances were: American sailing-vessels, 74, tonnage, 26,233; foreign sailing-vessels, 38, tonnage, 33,885; American steam-vessels, 10, tonnage, 1,135,609;—total steam-vessels, 550, tonnage, 1,135,609; total vessels, 672; total tonnage, 1,246,713.

Manufactures. — According to the United States Census of 1900 there were in the city 6,359 manufacturing and mechanical industries, which were operated on a total capital of $117,062,459; employed 78,738 wage-earners; paid for wages, $29,220,460, and for materials used in manufacturing, $87,175,134; and had a combined product valued at $161,249,240. In the period 1890–1900 the increase in number of establishments was 20.8 per cent.; in amount of capital, 26.2 per cent.; of expenses, 65.4 per cent.; of materials, 18.2 per cent.; and of value of products, 13.8 per cent. The principal industries with the value of products were the manufacture of men's clothing (in factories), $17,290,825; tobacco in various forms, $9,576,455; fruit and vegetable canning and preserving, $8,477,178; foundry and machine-shop products, $6,119,973; wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing, $5,308,334; bread and bakery products, $3,811,524; fertilizers, $3,752,329; shirts, $3,686,675; railroad cars, $3,529,959; malt liquors, $2,934,028; furniture (in factories), $2,690,610; oyster canning, $2,364,968; flour and grist mill products, $2,321,998; and lumber and planing-mill products, $1,809,068.

Banking.—Besides its State and sav-

ings-banks and loan and trust companies, Baltimore has eighteen national banks, which, on Sept. 4, 1904, reported an aggregate capital of $11,790,700; surplus, $6,472,200; dividends, $471,874; deposits, $49,695,751; outstanding circulation, $4,524,000; loans and discounts, $48,755,586; and liabilities and assets balancing at $92,687,945. The exchanges at the United States clearing-house here in the year ending Sept. 30, 1903, were $1,169,531,519; in 1904, $1,097,603,459; the decrease being due to the withdrawal of large deposits and a curtailment of banking by business men and others who began rebuilding immediately after the fire.

Monuments.—Contrary to a long-prevailing belief, the city derived its popular name not from the number of monuments in it, but from the Washington Monument, one of the earliest memorials of its kind to "the Father of his Country," begun in 1815 and completed in 1830. It stands at the intersection of Mount Vernon and Washington places, on a site 100 feet above tidewater, and consists of a base sixty feet square and thirty-five feet high, a Doric shaft 130 feet in height, and a surmounting statue of Washington sixteen feet high. The main construction is of brick, with an outer shell of marble, and cost $200,000. The most interesting monument from a local historical viewpoint is the Battle Monument in Monument Square, a structure erected in 1815 as a memorial to the citizens who were killed while defending the city from the British in the preceding year. It comprises a square base twenty feet high, with an Egyptian door on each side bearing inscriptions and representations of the battle, a column eighteen feet high with encircling bands containing the names of the fallen, and a surmounting female figure in marble.

The Wildey and Ridgely monuments commemorate the founder of American Odd-Fellowship and the long-time secretary of its Sovereign Grand Lodge. The Wells and McComas Monument was erected to the memory of the two youths who shot the British commander, General Ross, on Sept. 12, 1814. Druid Hill Park has statues of Columbus, Washington, and Sir William Wallace; Greenmount Cemetery, one of John McDonough, the founder of the McDonough School for Poor Boys; and in the vicinity of the Washington Monument are bronze statues of Chief-Justice Taney and George Peabody, the Barye bronzes of "Peace," "War," "Force," and "Order," a colossal lion, and a tribute to "Military Courage." On the grounds of the Samuel Ready Orphan Asylum is an obelisk of stuccoed brick, said to be the oldest memorial of Christopher Columbus in the New World, and at the Westminster Presbyterian Church are the grave and tomb of Edgar Allan Poe.

Notable Buildings.—The City Hall occupies the square bounded by Holliday, Lexington, North, and Fayette streets; is built of marble in the composite style of architecture; was completed in 1875; and cost $2,271,135. It has a ground area of 225 by 140 feet, is four stories high, and from its French roof rises an iron dome 260 feet high. Two hundred and fifty feet above the sidewalk is a balcony from which a grand view of the city and its surroundings may be had. On the block bounded by St. Paul, Calvert, Lexington, and Fayette streets is the Court House, completed in 1899 at a cost of about $3,000,000. The United States Government Building, a plain but imposing granite structure, occupies the block bounded by Calvert, Fayette, North, and Lexington streets. The City Hall, Court House, and United States Government Building are at the edge of the burned district. The Masonic Temple on Charles Street near Saratoga; the Odd Fellows' Hall on the corner of Cathedral and Saratoga streets; the Young Men's Christian Association Building on the corner of Charles and Saratoga streets; and the Merchants' Shot Tower (216 feet high and from 40 to 20 feet in diameter), on the corner of Front and Fayette streets—are conspicuous among the buildings of non-civic use. There are numerous commercial, exchange, banking, insurance, newspaper, and other class buildings. The station of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company was destroyed by the fire; but the company at once announced its intention of putting up a superior building at a cost of $2,000,000. At the entrance to the harbor stands the historic Fort McHenry, a building of no pro-

tective value to-day, but one that the citizens wish the National Government to retain as a memorial of the stirring days of 1812. Other buildings that call for special mention are noted further on, under their distinctive classifications.

Churches.—As the first city in the United States in historical relation to the Roman Catholic Church and the seat of several of its Plenary Councils, Baltimore invites special attention to its Cathedral, its most celebrated religious edifice. It is built of granite in the form of a cross, on the corner of Mulberry and Cathedral streets, is 190 feet long, 177 feet wide at the extremities of the arms of the cross, and 127 feet high from the floor to the top of the cross on its dome. There are two tall towers at its west end, surmounted by Saracenic cupolas. Besides a great organ, once the largest in the country, it contains a painting of "The Descent from the Cross," presented by Louis XVI., and another representing "St. Louis Burying his Officers and Soldiers Slain before Tunis," presented by Charles X. of France.

The First Presbyterian Church, on Park Avenue and Madison Street, has a spire 268 feet high and side towers 78 and 128 feet high, respectively, and has an exceedingly ornate interior. St. Paul's Protestant Episcopal Church, Charles and Saratoga streets, is the oldest church of that denomination in the city, and is a type of Romanesque architecture, while Grace Church, Monument and Park streets, and Emanuel Church, Read and Cathedral streets, both Protestant Episcopal, the first of red sandstone, the other of marble, are built in the Gothic style. The churches of St. Alphonsus, Saratoga and Park streets, St. Vincent de Paul, on North Front Street, and St. Ignatius Loyola, Calvert and Read streets, all Roman Catholic, are noted for their exquisite decorations.

Next to the Cathedral, the Unitarian Church, on North Charles and Franklin streets, is unquestionably the most imposing structure of its class in the city. It has a frontal colonnade showing four Tuscan columns and two pilasters, forming the arcades, and a portico with five bronze doors. The Brown Memorial Church (Presbyterian), Park and Lafayette avenues, is a Gothic marble edifice; the Associate Reformed, Maryland Avenue and Preston Street, is a Romanesque gray stone; the First Methodist Episcopal, St. Paul and Twenty-second streets, is a Venetian stone with lofty campanile; the Corpus Christi (Roman Catholic), on Mount Royal Avenue, is decorated Gothic; and the Eutaw Place Baptist, Eutaw and Dolphin streets, is noticeable for its marble spire, 186 feet high. Four synagogues of stone display elaborate architectural treatment.

Education.—On Jan. 1, 1904, there were in the city 110 public schools of various grades, with 1,689 teachers and 67,368 enrolled pupils, and the cost of maintaining the system during the previous year was $1,348,476. These schools occupied 125 buildings, and all excepting twenty-one were owned by the city. It is interesting to note that Baltimore was the first American city to introduce into its public-school system a high school for girls exclusively. Having been from the first the seat of the primacy of the Roman Catholic Church in the United States, the city has a well-established and thoroughly adequate system of parochial schools, with upward of 15,000 pupils.

Foremost among the higher educational institutions is the university erected through the munificence of the late Johns Hopkins and bearing his name. His gift for the university consisted of his beautiful estate of Clifton (330 acres of ground), 15,000 shares of the common stock of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, of which the par value was $1,500,000, and other securities valued at $750,000, the whole having a value in round numbers of $3,500,000. A like sum was set apart for the erection and endowment of the hospital which also bears his name. A Board of Trustees to manage the properties was incorporated in 1867, and in 1874, after the death of the founder, it proceeded to the organization of the work intrusted to it. In 1876 the university was opened in temporary quarters, and in May, 1889, the hospital was opened in buildings that cost nearly $2,000,000.

In operation the university and hospital are intimately connected, as it was the wish and purpose of the founder that the hospital should ultimately form a part of the medical school of the university.

Accordingly, when the latter was opened ample provision was made for instruction in those studies which lead up naturally to the professional study of medicine. On the subsequent gift of $500,000 by the women of Baltimore, of which Miss Mary E. Garrett contributed $350,000, the trustees in 1893 opened the Johns Hopkins Medical School, to which women are admitted on the same terms as men. The university has thoroughly equipped chemical, physical, geological, and biological laboratories, and an astronomical observatory; issues historical and scientific monographs and other publications that have attained high repute in this country and in Europe; and adheres closely to its principal object —the higher education of post-graduates.

Other high-grade institutions are the University of Maryland, founded in 1807, and housed in a building modelled after the Pantheon in Rome; Loyola College (Roman Catholic), opened in 1852; Morgan College (Methodist Episcopal), opened in 1876; St. Joseph's and St. Mary's seminaries (Roman Catholic), opened in 1888 and 1792, respectively; Baltimore Medical College (1881); Baltimore University School of Medicine (1883); College of Physicians and Surgeons (1872); Maryland Medical College (1898); University of Maryland Medical College (1807); Southern Homœopathic Medical College (1891); and Woman's Medical College (1882); schools of dentistry and pharmacy; Baltimore Manual Labor School, Polytechnic Institute, Samuel Ready School, and McDonough School, all for manual training; thirteen training schools for nurses, connected with the various hospitals; Woman's College of Baltimore (Methodist Episcopal), opened in 1888; and Notre Dame of Maryland (Roman Catholic), opened in 1873—the last two for women exclusively.

Baltimore has about fifty libraries of all classes. In the Peabody Institute, facing the Washington Monument on the south, founded and endowed by the late George Peabody, are accommodations for advanced students and a general reference library of about 148,000 volumes, to be consulted only on the premises. The Enoch Pratt Free Library, founded by the late citizen whose name it bears, is a Romanesque building of white marble, with a tower 98 feet high rising from the centre of the façade, on Mulberry Street. It has several branch stations in convenient parts of the city, is general in character, and has about 220,000 volumes on its shelves. Johns Hopkins University has a regular collegiate library of 110,000 volumes and a medical library of 8,000. The oldest libraries are those of St. Mary's Seminary (1792) and the Baltimore Monthly Meeting of Friends (1799).

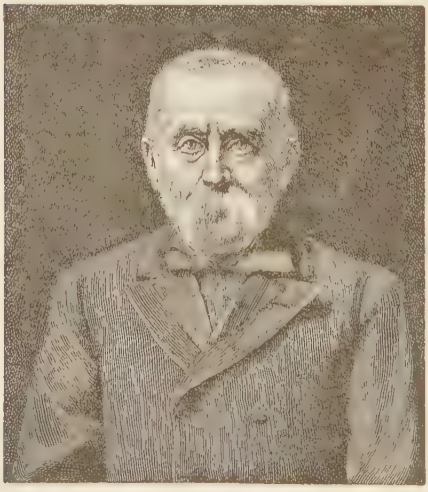
JOHNS HOPKINS.

Benevolence.—The philanthropic activities of the city are represented by a large number of excellent institutions, supported by State, county, municipal, religious, and other organizations, and by private foundations, several of the most extensive being located within a few miles of the city limits. The State Insane Asylum, a group of granite buildings, is near Catonsville (6 miles); the Shepard-Pratt Asylum for the Insane is near Towsontown (7 miles); the Bay View Asylum or Alms-

house is on the Philadelphia road near the outskirts; the Mount Hope Retreat for the Insane is on the Reistertown road; and the McDonough School for Poor Boys, founded by John McDonough of New Orleans, and the cottages of the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium for sick children, are within a short distance of the city. The Baltimore Orphan Asylum, founded in 1801, is on Stricker Street; St. Paul's Orphan Asylum is on Charles and Twenty-fourth streets; the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society is in the Wilson Building; the Maryland Institution for the Instruction of the Blind is a fine marble building on North Avenue; the Episcopal Church Home is on Broadway near Baltimore Street; the Samuel Ready Orphan Asylum is on the eastern limits; and the Home for Incurables and the United States Marine Hospital are in the northern section. In all there are about seventy-five asylums, hospitals, orphanages, and homes for various classes of human misfortune and affliction.

Baltimore is fortunate in having many public-spirited citizens of great wealth, such as Henry Walters, who admits the public at stated intervals to the wonderful art-galleries formed by his father, William T. Walters.

History.—Under authority of an act of the Assembly, Aug. 8, 1729, a town of sixty acres was created, and in the following year it was officially laid out and named Baltimore in honor of Cecil Calvert (see BALTIMORE, LORDS). The territory covered by the town was that now bounded approximately by Liberty, Saratoga, and Frederick streets and the Basin or inner harbor. Two years later Jones's Town, subsequently Old Town, east of the falls, was laid out. The first parish church, on the site of the present corner of Saratoga and Charles streets, was begun in 1730 and finished in 1739. In 1745 Baltimore began its course of expansion by having Jones's Town incorporated with it, and in 1753 it was again enlarged by the absorption of thirty-two acres of what was known as Coles's Harbor. At this time Baltimore Town contained 25 houses and 200 inhabitants. Charles Carroll erected Mount Clare house, using imported brick, in 1754, and the town received its first immigrants—a body of Acadian exiles. The year 1768 was one of large political significance, the town being then constituted the county-seat. The first issue of the first newspaper, the *Maryland Journal and Baltimore Advertiser*, came from the press on Aug. 20, 1773, and in the same year a stage route to Philadelphia was opened, the first Methodist meeting-house was erected, and the first display of popular benevolence was made, the citizens sending a goodly supply of corn, rye, and bread to the poor of Boston. In 1775 the town contained 564 houses and 5,934 inhabitants.



WILLIAM T. WALTERS.

During the Revolutionary War period the town escaped the horrors of hostile strife, yet had several exciting incidents connected therewith. The Continental Congress was in session here from Dec. 20, 1776, to Jan. 20, 1777, sitting in the hall on the corner of Baltimore and Liberty streets. On March 25, 1777, a political riot occurred, caused by a body of members of the Whig Club, excited by an article in the *Maryland Journal* praising King George and the British Parliament, storming Mr. Goddard, the editor, in his office. In March of the following year Count Pulaski organized his famous corps here. The first connection between the town and the national government was made in 1780, when a custom-house was erected. In 1781 the paving of the streets was begun; in 1784 the streets

were first lighted with oil-lamps; on Oct. 5, 1786, the first destructive flood occurred; in 1791 the Bank of Maryland was organized; and in the summer of 1794 the town was first visited by an epidemic—yellow fever. A second epochal year was 1796, when, on Dec. 31, the town was incorporated as a city. It then had 20,000 inhabitants. James Calhoun, the first mayor, was elected Jan. 16, 1797. Water was first supplied through cast-iron pipes in May, 1807.

The part borne by Baltimore in the war of 1812–15 began on June 12, 1812, when a mob attacked the office of the *Federal Republican*, because of the publication in it of an article denouncing the declaration of war against England. On July 27 following, the mob resumed the attack and destroyed the office and its contents. On Sept. 12, 1814, a British force, under Gen. Robert Ross, advanced against the city. They were met by a defensive column at North Point, where an engagement was fought in which the British commander was killed. Finding the city much more strongly fortified than they had anticipated, the British soldiers retired from their position, leaving the task of punishment to their fleet, which bombarded Fort McHenry unsuccessfully on the following day. During the attack on the fort Francis Scott Key, a witness of the action, composed "The Star-spangled Banner," and it was printed in the *Baltimore American and Daily Advertiser* on Sept. 21, 1814. The corner-stones of the Washington and Battle monuments were laid in 1815, the latter on the anniversary of the North Point engagement.

Another increase in the area of the city was made in 1816, when a number of precincts with a combined population of 16,000 were annexed. On Aug. 8, 1817, a freshet at Jones's Falls overflowed the "Meadows" section to a depth of from ten to fifteen feet. American Odd-Fellowship had its birth in Baltimore on April 13, 1819, when Washington Lodge, No. 1, was organized at Fell's Point through the efforts of Thomas Kildey. The lodge received its charter from Duke of York Lodge, of Preston, England, in February following. In 1820 the first public building and the first private house were lighted with gas; the first building of all to be so improved was Peale's Museum, in 1816. The city had its first serious visitation of fire on June 23, 1822, three lumber-yards and from twenty-five to thirty buildings, mostly warehouses, being burned. An evidence of the financial prosperity of the citizens in this period is shown by the fact that in March, 1827, when subscription books for stock of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad were opened, 22,000 persons subscribed $4,178,000. This popular expression of confidence both in the promoters and the project was so effective that on July 4 of the following year the foundation-stone of the railroad was laid by the Masonic Grand Lodge of Maryland, assisted by the venerable Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Baltimore celebrated the centennial of its official creation, Aug. 8, 1829, and in the following month dedicated its first public school. It had its second epidemic—this time of cholera—in 1832; its first bank failure in 1835; its fourth riot, because of the bank failure, in 1835; and its second freshet at Jones's Falls in 1837, when nineteen lives were lost, and Harrison and Frederick streets were flooded to the depth of ten feet. Foreign commercial intercourse began on May 20, 1838, when the *City of Kingston*, the first steam-vessel from Baltimore to Europe direct, left the port. The principal occurrences in the next ten years were the explosion of the boiler of the steamer *Medora*, just as she was about to start on her trial trip, April 15, 1842, in which twenty-seven persons lost their lives and forty were injured, and the reception of the first magnetic telegraph communication from Washington, "What hath God wrought," May 27, 1844. On May 28, 1848, the city was visited by another conflagration, breaking out in a cotton-factory in Lexington Street, and destroying sixty dwellings. The next five years marked the death of Edgar Allan Poe (1849), the arrival of Jenny Lind (1850), the reception of Louis Kossuth (1851), and the arrival from Louisville, Ky., of the remains of Junius Brutus Booth (1852). The most serious calamity occurred on July 4, 1854, when thirty persons were killed and about 100 injured by a collision of an excursion with an accommodation train near the Relay House.

On June 18, 1860, the adjourned Convention of Democratic delegates who had first assembled in Charleston, S. C., met in Baltimore under the chairmanship of Caleb Cushing. A number of delegates who had withdrawn from the Charleston Convention and reassembled in Richmond claimed the right to sit in the Baltimore Convention, and the chairman, declining to decide the delicate question, referred it to the Convention. This action precipitated an acrimonious debate. The case of the contesting delegates was referred to the Committee on Credentials, which, owing to diversities of opinion, submitted two reports on the 21st, which gave rise to another heated debate and the advocacy of the reopening of the slave trade. On the following day the majority report was adopted; the places of most of the seceders, who were unseated, were filled by Douglas men; another withdrawal of Southern delegates occurred; and finally Mr. Cushing and a majority of the Massachusetts delegation also withdrew. Governor David Tod, of Ohio, succeeded Mr. Cushing as chairman, and the Convention proceeding to ballot for a Presidential candidate, Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, was nominated for President, and Herbert V. Johnson, of Georgia, for Vice-President. The Convention adjourned on June 23.

Because of subsequent events it may be noted here that when the larger part of the Massachusetts delegation withdrew from the Convention Benjamin F. Butler explained the action in the following vigorous language: "We put our withdrawal before you upon the simple ground, among others, that there has been a withdrawal, in part, of a majority of the States, and, further (and that, perhaps, more personal to myself), upon the ground that I will not sit in a convention where the African slave trade—which is piracy by the laws of my country—is approvingly advocated."

The results of the Baltimore Convention thickened rather than cleared the political atmosphere. Party and sectional feelings were alike stirred to fever heat, and the election of Abraham Lincoln furnished the fuel on which the flames soon burst forth. Early in January, 1861, Governor John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts, tendered a body of State troops to the national government for its protection. Fort Sumter was attacked, and on the day that the President's call for volunteers was issued, Governor Andrew was telegraphed to send twenty companies of militia to Washington immediately. Four regiments were at once brigaded and placed under the command of Benjamin F. Butler, just commissioned a brigadier-general. On Jan. 16, United States Senator Wilson telegraphed from Washington for four regiments. They were in readiness to start directly the necessary order was received, and the 6th Regiment, under Colonel Jones, was despatched first, by way of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. The regiment at this time consisted of thirteen companies, two having been added to the original force.

News of the approach of these troops, followed by details of the destruction of the arsenal and armory at Harper's Ferry, created intense excitement in Baltimore, and by the time the train bearing the Massachusetts soldiers reached the President Street station near noon on April 19, a crowd of about 500 excited men were waiting to receive them. While horses were being attached to the cars to draw them to the Camden Street station this crowd was increased to about 2,000 men, who followed the cars to the station, where another large one had gathered. On reaching Pratt Street the crowd began shouting for Jefferson Davis and the Southern Confederacy, and when near the corner of Gay Street, where there was a large heap of stones, they broke loose from all restraint and hurled these missiles on the soldier-laden cars as they passed. Every window was demolished, and several soldiers were injured.

Failing to tear up the track, the crowd made a barricade across the street. The troops back of this, comprising four companies, then alighted from the cars for the purpose of marching the remaining distance to the Camden Street station. As they started in close order, the crowd, led by a man bearing a Confederate flag on a pole, fell upon them, shouting that they should never pass through the city alive, and hurling bricks and stones into their ranks. The troops then began ad-

vancing on the "double quick"; the attack became more furious; several soldiers were knocked down and robbed of their guns; suddenly shots began to be fired from the crowd. Up to this time the troops had offered no resistance, but when it was evident that the crowd was determined on wholesale murder in order to prevent the passage of the troops, the latter prepared to defend themselves.

On reaching Gay Street, where the crowd had increased to 10,000 men, the troops turned and fired at random into their assailants. This greatly intensified the excitement. The mayor tried in vain to quell the riot, and the troops were left to fight their way through to the station. The severest of the fighting was in Pratt Street, between Gay and Bowley's wharf, near Calvert Street. From the beginning of the riot till the troops reached the Camden Street station, three of their number were killed outright, one mortally wounded, eight were seriously injured, and several others slightly. Nine citizens were killed, but how large the number of wounded was will never be known. As the train proceeded on its journey it was followed by the crowd for more than a mile, and was frequently fired into from the hills on the way. The troops reached their destination that evening, and were quartered in the Senate Chamber.

A meeting of some State and city officials was held the night of the riot, and Governor Hicks was besought for permission to destroy the bridges on lines of railroad over which it was believed other troops might be transported to Washington. Governor Hicks refused, but Marshal Kane, Mayor Brown, and President Howard of the Board of Police, organized gangs of men, who destroyed the Canton, Gunpowder, Bush, and Cockeysville bridges, and cut all telegraph wires leading out of the city, excepting the one to Harper's Ferry, then held by the Confederates. Thus all communication by railroad and telegraph between the national capital and the Northern States was severed.

The State and city authorities then undertook to obtain a pledge from the President that no more troops should be permitted to pass through the city, but he replied in substance: "I must have troops for the defence of the capital. The Carolinians are now marching across Virginia to seize the capital and hang me. What am I to do? I must have troops, I say; and as they can neither crawl under Maryland nor fly over it, they must come across it." Several delegations failed to swerve the President from his determination, and, finding this scheme fruitless, the authorities planned other measures to accomplish their purpose, but were frustrated by General Butler, who, ascertaining that Baltimore was in his department, organized an expedition that took possession of the Relay House on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, nine miles from the city, on the morning of May 5. An immense Union meeting had been held in the city on the previous evening, and from its leaders General Butler obtained such full information concerning local conditions that he was enabled to inaugurate energetic measures at once. On May 14 by a feint movement of troops he took possession of the city and established his headquarters on Federal Hill. Soon afterward the President commissioned him a major-general and assigned him to the command of a more extended military district—the Department of Virginia, which included Fort Monroe.

General Butler was succeeded in command of the Department of Annapolis, with headquarters in Baltimore, by Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks, who, in June, became satisfied that Marshal Kane and the Board of Police were in league with the Confederates in a combination to assist General Beauregard to seize the national capital by preventing the passage of Union soldiers through the State and aiding Marylanders to cross into Virginia to the Confederate army. General Banks arrested Marshal Kane and the police commissioners, organized a new police force of loyal men, and soon had the city under effective control.

On July 25, 1873, the city was visited by a conflagration in which two churches, three school-houses, and 108 other buildings were destroyed, causing a loss of $750,000, and on Sept. 2, 1888, another fire, in Hopkins Place, caused a property loss of $2,000,000, and the lives of several firemen. Its greatest disaster by fire,

however, occurred on Feb. 7–8, 1904, when a territory measuring twelve by nine full city blocks and extending for more than a mile of water front was left in smoking ruins. The fire was in the business section, and only the City Hall, Court House, and United States Government Building escaped. A remarkable feature of the disaster was the fact that the casualties were limited to one fireman killed and less than fifty persons injured. In the adjustment of insurance claims the property loss was placed at $45,000,000, and the insurance loss at about $30,000,000.

Baltimore, Lords. I. George Calvert, born about 1580, at Kipling, Yorkshire, Eng.; was graduated at Oxford; travelled on the Continent; became secretary of Robert Cecil; married Anne Minne in 1604; was a clerk of the privy council; was knighted in 1617; became a secretary of state soon afterwards, and in 1620 was granted a pension of $5,000 a year. When, in 1624, he publicly avowed himself a Roman Catholic, he resigned his office, but King James retained him in the privy council; and a few days before that monarch's death he was created Baron of Baltimore in the Irish peerage. Calvert had already entered upon a colonizing scheme. In 1620 he purchased a part of Newfoundland, and was invested with the privileges and honors of a count-palatine. He called his new domain Avalon, and, after spending about $100,000 in building warehouses there, and a mansion for himself, he went thither in 1627. He returned to England the following spring. In the spring of 1629 he went again to Avalon, taking with him his wife and unmarried children. The following winter was a severe one, and he began to contemplate a desertion of the domain on account of the rigorous climate. He sent his children home. In the autumn he actually abandoned Newfoundland, and with his wife and retainers sailed to Virginia, where, because he refused to take the oath of allegiance, he was ordered away by Governor Harvey. His wife and retainers remained there during the winter. Going from there in the spring, it is supposed he explored the shores of Chesapeake Bay, and chose that region for a settlement. In 1632, Lord Baltimore obtained a charter from Charles I. of the territory on the Chesapeake now forming the State of Maryland. "What will you call the country?" asked the King. Baltimore referred the matter to his Majesty. "Then let us name it after the Queen" (Henrietta Maria), said Charles, "and call it Mariana." The expert courtier dissented, because that was the name of a Spanish historian who taught that "the will of the people is higher than the law of tyrants." Still disposed to compliment the Queen, the King said, "Let it be *Terra Mariæ—Mary's Land.*" And it was named Maryland. Before the great seal of England was affixed to the charter, Lord Baltimore died, April 15, 1632, and was succeeded by his son Cecil.

II. Cecilius or Cecil Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, was born about 1605. Very little is known of his early life. When he was about twenty years of age

Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore.

he married Anne, the beautiful daughter of the Earl of Arundel, who was one of the most influential Roman Catholics in the realm. On the death of his father, the charter for Maryland was issued to Cecilius, his eldest son and heir, June, 1632; and he immediately prepared to sail for the Chesapeake with a colony. When he was about ready to depart, he changed his mind, and sent his brother Leonard, as

governor, with his brother George, and two assistants and counsellors, Jeremy Hawley and Thomas Cornwallis, both Protestants. The whole company, who sailed in two vessels—the *Ark* and *Dove*—numbered over 300, according to Lord Baltimore, who wrote to his friend Wentworth (afterwards the unfortunate Earl of Strafford: "By the help of some of your lordship's good friends and mine, I have sent a hopeful colony into Maryland, with a fair and favorable expectation of good success, without any great prejudice to myself, in respect that many others are joined with me in the adventure. There are two of my brothers, with very near twenty other gentlemen of very good fashion, and 300 laboring men." As most of the latter took the oath of allegiance before sailing, they were probably Protestants. Father Andrew White, a Jesuit priest, accompanied the expedition. They sailed from the Isle of Wight, and took the tedious southern route by way of the Canaries. The vessels were separated by a furious gale, but met at Bermuda, whence the emigrants went to the Chesapeake, founded a settlement, and established a government under the charter, which was nearly the same in form as all charters then granted (see MARYLAND). It conferred on the proprietor absolute ownership of the territory, and also the civil and ecclesiastical power of a feudal nature. Entire exemption from taxation was conceded to the colonists. As an acknowledgment that the original title to the land was still in the possession of the crown, the proprietor was required to pay to the King the tribute of two Indian arrows. Cecil was a member of Parliament in 1634, but mingled very little in public affairs afterwards. He never came to America, but managed his province by deputies forty-three years. His course towards the colonists was generally wise and conciliatory, because it was profitable to be so. In religion and politics he was very flexible, being quite indifferent to either, and he did very little for the religious and intellectual cultivation of the colonists. Negatively good, he was regarded with great respect by all parties, even by the Indians. He died in London, Nov. 30, 1675.

III. CHARLES CALVERT, third Lord Baltimore, succeeded his father as lord proprietor of Maryland in 1675. He was born in London in 1629; appointed governor of Maryland in 1661; and married the daughter of Hon. Henry Sewall, whose seat was on the Patuxent river. After the death of his father he visited England, but soon returned. In 1684 he again went to England, and never came back. He was suspected of favoring King James II. after the Revolution, and was outlawed for treason in Ireland, although he was never in that country. The outlawry was reversed by William and Mary in 1691. Charles Lord Baltimore was thrice married, and died in London, Feb. 24, 1714.

IV. BENEDICT LEONARD CALVERT, fourth Lord Baltimore, succeeded his father, Charles, in 1714. In 1698 he married Lady Charlotte Lee, daughter of the Earl of Lichfield (granddaughter of the notorious Duchess of Cleveland, the favorite mistress of Charles II.), from whom he was divorced in 1705. Benedict publicly abjured the Roman Catholic faith in 1713, and died in 1715, only thirteen months after the death of his father.

V. CHARLES CALVERT II., son of Benedict, and the fifth Lord Baltimore, was born Sept. 29, 1699, and was an infant in law when he succeeded to his father's title. In July, 1730, he married the widow Mary Janssen, youngest daughter of Gen. Theodore Janssen. His life was spent chiefly in England. In 1731 he was appointed gentleman of the bedchamber to the Prince of Wales, and soon afterwards was elected Fellow of the Royal Society. He was in Parliament in 1734, and in 1741 was appointed Junior Lord of the Admiralty. In the spring of 1741 he was appointed cofferer to the Prince of Wales and surveyor-general of the Duchy lands in Cornwall. After having ruled Maryland in person and by deputy more than thirty years, he died April 24, 1751, at his home in London.

VI. FREDERICK CALVERT, sixth and last Lord Baltimore, was born in 1731, and succeeded to the title of his father, Charles Calvert II., in 1751. He married Lady Diana Egerton, youngest daughter of the Duke of Bridgewater, in 1753. He led a disreputable life, and died at the age of forty, at Naples, Sept. 14, 1771. Yet he was a patron of literature and a friend and companion of the Earl of Chatham

(Pitt). In 1767 he published an account of his *Tour in the East.* He was a pretentious author of several other works, mostly of a weak character. Lord Frederick bequeathed the province of Maryland, in *tail male,* to Henry Harford, then a child, and the remainder, in fee, to his sister, the Hon. Mrs. Norton. He left an estate valued at $5,000.

The last representative of the Baltimore family was found in a debtors' prison in England, in 1860, by Col. Angus McDonald, of Virginia, where he had been confined for twenty years. Henry Harford was the last proprietor of Maryland. See CALVERT, LEONARD.

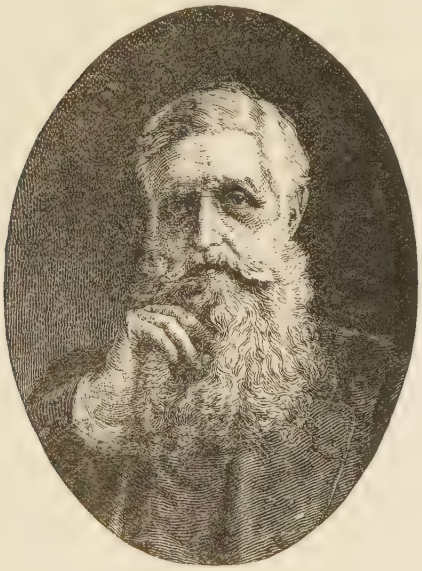
Bancroft, EDWARD, naturalist; born in Westfield, Mass., Jan. 9, 1744; was a pupil of SILAS DEANE (*q. v.*) when the latter was a school-master. His early education was not extensive. Apprenticed to a mechanic, he ran away, in debt to his master, and went to sea; but returning with means, he compensated his employer. Again he went to sea; settled in Guiana, South America, as a physician, in 1763, and afterwards made his residence in London, where, in 1769, he published a *Natural History of Guiana.* He became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Fellow of the Royal Society. While Franklin was in England on a diplomatic mission, Dr. Bancroft became intimate with him; and through the influence of the philosopher became a contributor to the *Monthly Review.* He was suspected by the British government of participation in the attempt to burn the Portsmouth dock-yards, and he fled to Passy, France. Soon afterwards he met Silas Deane, his old teacher, in Paris, and offered to assist him in his labors as agent of the Continental Congress. His ways were sometimes devious, and Mr. Bancroft, the historian, accuses him of being a spy in the pay of the British government, and of making a dupe of Deane. After the peace, Dr. Bancroft obtained, in France, a patent for the exclusive importation of the bark of the yellow oak, for the dyers, and afterwards he obtained a similar patent in England. Dr. Bancroft never returned to America. He died in England, Sept. 8, 1820.

Bancroft, FREDERIC, historian; born in Galesburg, Ill., Oct. 30, 1860; was graduated at Amherst College in 1882; appointed chief of the Bureau of Rolls and Library, Department of State, Washington, D. C., in 1888; has lectured on historical and diplomatic subjects; contributed many articles to the press; and published *Life of William H. Seward; The Negro in Politics,* etc.

BANCROFT, GEORGE

Bancroft, GEORGE, historian; born in Worcester, Mass., Oct. 3, 1800; son of Rev. Aaron Bancroft, a distinguished Unitarian clergyman and pioneer in "liberal Christianity." He graduated at Harvard in 1817; studied at the German universities, and received, at Göttingen, the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy when he was only twenty years of age. He resided some time in Berlin in the society of distinguished scholars, and on his return home, in 1822, he became a tutor of Greek in Harvard University. He published a volume of poems in 1823, and in 1824 a translation of Heeren's *Politics of Ancient Greece.* In 1823, in conjunction with J. G. Cogswell, he established the celebrated "Round Hill School," at Northampton, Mass. While in the German universities, Mr. Bancroft studied with avidity whatever was taught in them, but made history a specialty. His chief tutors there were Heeren, Eichhorn, and Blumenbach. At Berlin he became intimate with Wilhelm von Humboldt and other eminent scholars and philosophers. At Heidelberg he spent some time in the study of history with Schlosser; and in Paris he made the acquaintance of Alexander von Humboldt, Cousin, and others. At Rome he formed a friendship with Chevalier Bünsen; he also knew Niebuhr. While engaged in the Round Hill School, Mr. Bancroft completed the first volume of his *History of the United States,* which was published in 1834. Ten volumes of this great work were completed and published in 1874, or forty years from the commencement of the work. The tenth volume brings the narrative down to the

conclusion of the preliminary treaty of peace in 1782. In 1838 President Van Buren appointed Mr. Bancroft collector of the port of Boston. He was then engaged in delivering frequent political addresses, and took a deep interest in the philosophical movement now known as "transcendentalism." He was a Democrat in politics, and in 1840 received the nomination for governor of Massachusetts, but was not elected. In 1845 President Polk called Mr. Bancroft to his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy, and he signalized his administration by the establishment of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. While Secretary of the Navy he gave the order to take possession of California, which was done by the navy; and while acting temporarily as Secretary of War he gave the order for General Taylor to cross the Rio Grande and invade the territory of Mexico. In 1846 Mr. Bancroft was sent as United States minister plenipotentiary to England, and in 1849 the University of Oxford conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Civil Law. During this residence in Europe he perfected his collection of materials for his history, visiting the public archives and libraries at Paris. Returning to the United States in 1849, he made his residence in New York City, where he prosecuted his historical labors. He was engaged in this work until 1867, when he was appointed, by President Johnson (May 14), minister to Prussia, and accepted the office. In 1868 he was accredited to the North German Confederation, and in 1871 to the German Empire. In August, 1868, Mr. Bancroft received from the University of Bonn the honorary degree of "Doctor Juris"; and in 1870 he celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the reception of his first degree at Göttingen. Mr. Bancroft was a contributor of numerous essays to the *North American Review*. In 1889 he published *Martin Van Buren to the End of his Public Career*, which he had written many years before. His *History of the United States* has been translated into several languages. In 1882 he published a *History of the Formation of the Constitution* in 2 volumes. This completed his great work, in accordance with his original plan. He died Jan. 17, 1891.



GEORGE BANCROFT, LL.D.

The Death of Lincoln.—On April 25, 1865, Mr. Bancroft delivered the following oration on the death of President Lincoln, in New York City, at a great gathering in Union Square, after the remains of the murdered President had started for Chicago:

Our grief and horror at the crime which has clothed the continent in mourning find no adequate expression in words, and no relief in tears. The President of the United States of America has fallen by the hands of an assassin. Neither the office with which he was invested by the approved choice of a mighty people, nor the most simple-hearted kindliness of nature, could save him from the fiendish passions of relentless fanaticism. The wailings of the millions attend his remains as they are borne in solemn procession over our great rivers, along the seaside, beyond the mountains, across the prairie, to their resting-place in the valley of the Mississippi. His funeral knell vibrates through the world, and the friends of freedom of every tongue and in every clime are his mourners.

Too few days have passed away since Abraham Lincoln stood in the flush of vigorous manhood to permit any attempt

at an analysis of his character or an exposition of his career. We find it hard to believe that his large eyes, which in their softness and beauty expressed nothing but benevolence and gentleness, are closed in death; we almost look for the pleasant smile that brought out more vividly the earnest cast of his features, which were serious even to sadness. A few years ago he was a village attorney, engaged in the support of a rising family, unknown to fame, scarcely named beyond his neighborhood; his administration made him the most conspicuous man in his country, and drew on him first the astonished gaze, and then the respect and admiration of the world.

Those who come after us will decide how much of the wonderful results of his public career is due to his own good common-sense, his shrewd sagacity, readiness of wit, quick interpretation of the public mind, his rare combination of fixedness and pliancy, his steady tendency of purpose; how much to the American people, who, as he walked with them side by side, inspired him with their own wisdom and energy; and how much to the overruling laws of the moral world, by which the selfishness of evil is made to defeat itself. But after every allowance, it will remain that members of the government which preceded his administration opened the gates to treason, and he closed them; that when he went to Washington the ground on which he trod shook under his feet, and he left the republic on a solid foundation; that traitors had seized public forts and arsenals, and he recovered them for the United States, to whom they belonged; that the capital, which he found the abode of slaves, is now the home only of the free; that the boundless public domain which was grasped at, and, in a great measure, held, for the diffusion of slavery, is now irrevocably devoted to freedom; that then men talked a jargon of a balance of power in a republic between slave States and free States, and now the foolish words are blown away forever by the breath of Maryland, Missouri, and Tennessee; that a terrible cloud of political heresy rose from the abyss, threatening to hide the light of the sun, and under its darkness a rebellion was growing into indefinable proportions; now the atmosphere is purer than ever before, and the insurrection is vanishing away; the country is cast into another mould, and the gigantic system of wrong, which has been the work of more than two centuries, is dashed down, we hope, forever. And as to himself personally, he was then scoffed at by the proud as unfit for his station, and now against usage of later years, and in spite of numerous competitors, he was the unbiased and undoubted choice of the American people for a second term of service. Through all the mad business of treason he retained the sweetness of a most placable disposition; and the slaughter of myriads of the best on the battle-field, and the more terrible destruction of our men in captivity by the slow torture of exposure and starvation, had never been able to provoke him into harboring one vengeful feeling or one purpose of cruelty.

How shall the nation most completely show its sorrow at Mr. Lincoln's death? How shall it best honor his memory? There can be but one answer. He was struck down when he was highest in its service, and in strict conformity with duty was engaged in carrying out principles affecting its life, its good name, and its relations to the cause of freedom and the progress of mankind. Grief must take the character of action, and breathe itself forth in the assertion of the policy to which he fell a victim. The standard which he held in his hand must be uplifted again higher and more firmly than before, and must be carried on to triumph. Above everything else, his proclamation of the first day of January, 1863, declaring, throughout the parts of the country in rebellion, the freedom of all persons who had been held as slaves, must be affirmed and maintained.

Events, as they rolled onward, have removed every doubt of the legality and binding force of that proclamation. The country and the rebel government have each laid claim to the public service of the slave, and yet but one of the two can have a rightful claim to such service. That rightful claim belongs to the United States, because every one born on their soil, with the few exceptions of the children of travellers and transient residents, owes them a primary allegiance. Every one so born has been counted among those

represented in Congress; every slave has ever been represented in Congress; imperfectly and wrongly it may be—but still has been counted and represented. The slave born on our soil always owed allegiance to the general government. It may in time past have been a qualified allegiance, manifested through his master, as the allegiance of a ward through his guardian, or of an infant through its parent. But when the master became false to his allegiance, the slave stood face to face with his country; and his allegiance, which may before have been a qualified one, became direct and immediate. His chains fell off, and he rose at once in the presence of the nation, bound, like the rest of us, to its defence. Mr. Lincoln's proclamation did but take notice of the already existing right of the bondman to freedom. The treason of the master made it a public crime for the slave to continue his obedience; the treason of a State set free the collective bondmen of that State.

This doctrine is supported by the analogy of precedents. In the times of feudalism the treason of the lord of the manor deprived him of his serfs; the spurious feudalism that existed among us differs in many respects from the feudalism of the Middle Ages, but so far the precedent runs parallel with the present case; for treason the master then, for treason the master now, loses his slaves.

In the Middle Ages the sovereign appointed another lord over the serfs and the land which they cultivated; in our day the sovereign makes them masters of their own persons, lords over themselves.

It has been said that we are at war, and that emancipation is not a belligerent right. The objection disappears before analysis. In a war between independent powers the invading foreigner invites to his standard all who will give him aid, whether bond or free, and he rewards them according to his ability and his pleasure, with gifts or freedom; but when, at peace, he withdraws from the invaded country, he must take his aiders and comforters with him; or if he leaves them behind, where he has no court to enforce his decrees, he can give them no security, unless it be the stipulations of a treaty. In a civil war it is altogether different. There, when rebellion is crushed, the old government is restored, and its courts resume their jurisdiction. So it is with us; the United States have courts of their own, that must punish the guilt of treason and vindicate the freedom of persons whom the fact of rebellion has set free.

Nor may it be said that, because slavery existed in most of the States when the Union was formed, it cannot rightfully be interfered with now. A change has taken place, such as Madison foresaw, and for which he pointed out the remedy. The constitutions of States had been transformed before the plotters of treason carried them away into rebellion. When the federal Constitution was framed, general emancipation was thought to be near; and everywhere the respective legislatures had authority, in the exercise of their ordinary functions, to do away with slavery. Since that time the attempt has been made, in what are called slave States, to render the condition of slavery perpetual; and events have proved, with the clearness of demonstration, that a constitution which seeks to continue a caste of hereditary bondmen through endless generations is inconsistent with the existence of republican institutions.

So, then, the new President and the people of the United States must insist that the proclamation of freedom shall stand as a reality. And, moreover, the people must never cease to insist that the Constitution shall be so amended as utterly to prohibit slavery on any part of our soil forevermore.

Alas! that a State in our vicinity should withhold its assent to this last beneficent measure; its refusal was an encouragement to our enemies equal to the gain of a pitched battle, and delays the only hopeful method of pacification. The removal of the cause of the rebellion is not only demanded by justice; it is the policy of mercy making room for a wider clemency; it is the part of order against a chaos of controversy; its success brings with it true reconcilement, a lasting peace, a continuous growth of confidence through an assimilation of the social condition.

Here is the fitting expression of the mourning of to-day.

And let no lover of his country say that this warning is uncalled for. The cry

is delusive that slavery is dead. Even now it is nerving itself for a fresh struggle for continuance. The last winds from the South waft to us the sad intelligence that a man who had surrounded himself with the glory of the most brilliant and most varied achievements, who but a week ago was counted with affectionate pride among the greatest benefactors of his country and the ablest generals of all time, has initiated the exercise of more than the whole power of the executive, and under the name of peace has, perhaps unconsciously, revived slavery, and given the hope of security and political power to traitors, from the Chesapeake to the Rio Grande. Why could he not remember the dying advice of Washington, never to draw the sword but for self-defence or the rights of his country, and when drawn, never to sheathe it till its work should be accomplished? And yet, from this ill-considered act, which the people with one united voice condemn, no great evil will follow save the shadow on his own fame, and that, also, we hope, will pass away. The individual, even in the greatness of military glory, sinks into insignificance before the resistless movements of ideas in the history of man. No one can turn back or stay the march of Providence.

No sentiment of despair may mix with our sorrow. We owe it to the memory of the dead, we owe it to the cause of popular liberty throughout the world, that the sudden crime which has taken the life of the President of the United States shall not produce the least impediment in the smooth surface of public affairs. This great city, in the midst of unexampled emblems of deeply seated grief, has sustained itself with composure and magnanimity. It has nobly done its part in guarding against the derangement of business or the slightest shock to public credit. The enemies of the republic put it to the severest trial; but the voice of faction has not been heard; doubt and despondency have been unknown. In serene majesty the country rises in the beauty and strength and hope of youth, and proves to the world the quiet energy and the durability of institutions growing out of the reason and affections of the people.

Heaven has willed it that the United States shall live. The nations of the earth cannot spare them. All the worn-out aristocracies of Europe saw in the spurious feudalism of slave-holding their strongest outpost, and banded themselves together with the deadly enemies of our national life. If the Old World will discuss the respective advantages of oligarchy or equality; of the union of Church and State, or the rightful freedom of religion; of land accessible to the many, or land monopolized by an ever-decreasing number of the few, the United States must live to control the decision by their quiet and unobtrusive example. It has often and truly been observed that the truth and affection of the masses gather naturally round an individual; if the inquiry is made, whether the man so trusted and beloved shall elicit from the reason of the people, enduring institutions of their own, or shall sequester political power for a superintending dynasty, the United States must live to solve the problem. If a question is raised on the respective merits of Timoleon, or Julius Cæsar, or Washington, or Napoleon, the United States must be there to call to mind that there were twelve Cæsars, most of them the opprobrium of the human race, and to contrast with them the line of American Presidents.

The duty of the hour is incomplete, our mourning is insincere, if, while we express unwavering trust in the great principles that underlie our government, we do not also give our support to the man to whom the people have intrusted its administration.

Andrew Johnson is now, by the Constitution, the President of the United States, and he stands before the world as the most conspicuous representative of the industrial classes. Left an orphan at four years old, poverty and toil were his steps to honor. His youth was not passed in the halls of colleges; nevertheless he has received a thorough political education in statesmanship, in the school of the people, and by long experience of public life. A village functionary; member successively of each branch of the Tennessee legislature, hearing with a thrill of joy the words, "the Union, it must be preserved"; a representative in Con-

gress for successive years; governor of the great State of Tennessee, approved as its governor by re-election; he was at the opening of the rebellion a Senator from that State in Congress. Then at the Capitol, when Senators, unrebuked by the government, sent word by telegram to seize forts and arsenals, he alone from that Southern region told them what the government did not dare to tell them, that they were traitors, and deserved the punishment of treason. Undismayed by a perpetual purpose of public enemies to take his life, bearing up against the still greater trial of the persecution of his wife and children, in due time he went back to his State, determined to restore it to the Union, or die with the American flag for his winding sheet. And now, at the call of the United States, he has returned to Washington as a conqueror, with Tennessee as a free State for his trophy. It remains for him to consummate the vindication of the Union.

To that Union Abraham Lincoln has fallen a martyr. His death, which was meant to sever it beyond repair, binds it more closely and more firmly than ever. The blow aimed at him was aimed, not at the native of Kentucky, not at the citizen of Illinois, but at the man who, as President, in the executive branch of the government, stood as the representative of every man in the United States. The object of the crime was the life of the whole people, and it wounds the affections of the whole people. From Maine to the southwest boundary of the Pacific, it makes us one. The country may have needed an imperishable grief to touch its inmost feeling. The grave that receives the remains of Lincoln receives the costly sacrifice to the Union; the monument which will rise over his body will bear witness to the Union; his enduring memory will assist during countless ages to bind the States together, and to incite to the love of our one undivided, indivisible country. Peace to the ashes of our departed friend, the friend of his country and of his race. He was happy in his life, for he was the restorer of the republic; he was happy in his death, for his martyrdom will plead forever for the union of the States and the freedom of man.

Bancroft, HUBERT HOWE, historian; born in Granville, O., May 5, 1832. He engaged in the book business in California, and, after retiring, continued to develop his large and valuable library. He made a specialty of the Pacific coast of North America. Books, manuscripts, maps, narratives personally related by Californian pioneers, all formed the sources of his vast series of histories of the Pacific regions. In the labor of indexing, collecting, and writing, Mr. Bancroft employed collaborators to a greater extent than is usual. Up to 1900 he had published 39 volumes in his historical series, covering the western part of North America. His working library comprised 60,000 volumes.

Bandelier, ADOLPH FRANCIS ALPHONSE, archæologist; born in Berne, Switzerland, Aug. 6, 1840; came to the United States in youth; and became noted for ethnological and historical researches in Central America, Mexico, New Mexico, Arizona, Ecuador, Peru, Chile, etc., for the Archæological Institute of America and the American Museum of Natural History.

Bangor. See HAMPDEN, ACTION AT.

Bank of North America. It was soon perceived that under the new government, based on the Articles of Confederation (see CONFEDERATION, ARTICLES OF), the Congress had no power, independent of the several States, to enforce taxation. Robert Morris, then Superintendent of Finance (Secretary of the Treasury), proposed the establishment of a bank at Philadelphia, to supply the government with money, with a capital of $400,000. The promissory notes of the bank were to be a legal-tender currency, to be received in payment of all taxes, duties, and debts due the United States. The plan was approved by the Congress (May 26, 1781), and this financial agent of the government was chartered by the Congress Dec. 31. The capital stock was divided into shares of $400 each, in money of gold or silver, to be procured by subscriptions. Twelve directors were appointed to manage the affairs of the bank, which was entitled by the Congress "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of North America." That corporation furnished adequate means for saving the Continental army from disbanding.

Bank of the United States. Alexander

Hamilton, observing the prosperity and usefulness to the commercial community and the financial operations of the government, of the Bank of North America, Bank of New York, and Bank of Massachusetts, which held the entire banking capital of the country before 1791, recommended the establishment of a government bank in his famous report on the finances (1790), as Secretary of the Treasury. His suggestion was speedily acted upon, and an act for the purpose was adopted Feb. 8, 1791. President Washington asked the written opinion of his cabinet concerning its constitutionality. They were equally divided. The President, believing it to be legal, signed the bill, and so made it a law. The bank received a charter, the existence of which was limited to twenty years. It soon went into operation, with a capital of $10,000,000, of which amount the government subscribed $2,000,000 in specie and $6,000,000 in stocks of the United States. The measure was very popular. The shares of the bank rose to 25 and 45 per cent. premium, and it paid an average dividend of 8½ per cent. on its capital. The shares were $400 each. The bank was established at Philadelphia, with branches at different points. In 1808—or three years before the charter would expire—application was made to Congress for its renewal. A sort of bank mania had succeeded the original establishment of the institution, and local banks rapidly increased. They became favorites of the people, for they furnished business facilities that were of great importance to the whole commercial community. This local bank interest combined to prevent a renewal of the charter of the United States Bank, on the grounds, first, that it was unconstitutional; second, that too much of the stock was owned by foreigners; and, third, that the local banks better accommodated the public. Though the Secretary of the Treasury (Gallatin) reported in favor of a renewal of the charter, nothing was done by Congress until within a few weeks before the time when the bank would cease to exist. The bill for its recharter was defeated by the casting vote of the Vice-President (George Clinton) in the Senate, and the bank closed its affairs, giving to the stockholders 8½ per cent. premium over the par value.

The finances of the country were in a wretched state at the close of the war, in 1815. The local banks had all suspended specie payments, and there was very little of other currency than depreciated bank-notes. There was universal dissatisfaction, and the people clamored for another United States Bank as a cure for financial evils. One was chartered in the spring of 1816 (April 3). A bill to that effect had been vetoed by President Madison in January, 1815; now it received his willing signature. Its charter was for twenty years, and its capital was $35,000,000, of which amount the United States subscribed $7,000,000, and the remaining $28,000,000 by individuals. The creation of this bank compelled the State banks to resume specie payments or wind up. Many of them were aided in resumption by the great bank, but many, after a struggle more or less prolonged, closed their doors. Of the 246 State banks, with an aggregate capital of about $90,000,000 in 1816, a very large number were compelled to go into liquidation. From 1811 to 1830 165 banks, with a capital of $30,000,000, closed their business, and the loss of the government and of individuals by these banks was estimated at $5,000,000, or one-sixth of their capital. The second United States Bank went into operation in Philadelphia, in 1817, to continue until March, 1836. In it were deposited the funds of the government, the use of which gave the bank great facilities for discounting, and so aiding the commercial community. It soon controlled the monetary affairs of the country; and when General Jackson became President of the United States, in 1829, he expressed his decided hostility to the government bank, as a dangerous institution. He began a war upon it, which ended in its destruction. In his first annual message to Congress (December, 1829), he took strong ground against a renewal of the charter, which would expire in 1836. His reasons were that it had failed in the fulfilment of the promises of its creation—namely, to establish a uniform and sound currency for the whole nation; and, also, that such an institution was not authorized by the national Constitution. Again,

in his annual messages in 1830 and 1831, he attacked the bank, and renewed his objections. At the close of 1831 the proper officers of the bank petitioned, for the first time, for the renewal of its charter. The petition was presented in the Senate Jan. 9, 1832, and on March 13 a select committee, to whom it was referred, reported in favor of renewing the charter for fifteen years. Long debates ensued, and finally a bill for rechartering the bank passed both Houses of Congress—the Senate on June 11, by 28 against 20, and the House of Representatives, July 3, by a vote of 107 against 85. The President vetoed it, and as it failed to receive the constitutional vote of two-thirds of both Houses, the bank charter expired by limitation in 1836.

The commercial community, regarding such an institution as essential to their prosperity, were alarmed, and prophecies of panics and business revulsions, everywhere uttered, helped to accomplish their own speedy fulfilment. Again, in his annual message (December, 1832), Jackson's hostility to the bank was manifested by a recommendation to remove the public funds in its custody, and a sale of the stock of the bank belonging to the United States. Congress, by a decided vote, refused to authorize the measure; but after the adjournment of that body the President assumed the responsibility of performing the act. He directed the Secretary of the Treasury (William Duane) to withdraw the government funds—about $10,000,000—from the bank, and deposit them in certain State banks. The Secretary would only consent to appoint an agent to inquire upon what terms the local banks would receive the funds on deposit. Then the President gave him a peremptory order to remove them from the bank. Duane refused compliance, and was dismissed from office. His successor, Roger B. Taney (afterwards Chief-Justice of the United States), obeyed the President, and in October, 1833, the removal was accomplished. The effect produced was widespread commercial embarrassments and distress. The business of the country was plunged from a height of prosperity to the depths of adversity, because its intimate connection with the national bank rendered any paralysis of the operations of that institution fatal to commercial activity. The vital connection of the bank with the business of the country, evidenced by the confusion, confirmed the President's conviction of the danger to be apprehended from such an enormous moneyed institution.

Failing to have its charter renewed, the operations of the bank expired by limitation in March, 1836. It was rechartered the same year by the legislature of Pennsylvania, with the same capital. It was compelled to suspend specie payments, with all the local banks, in 1837, and again in 1839; and in February, 1840, it made a final suspension, and closed up its affairs. There remained nothing for the stockholders. The entire capital had been spent, and widespread distress was the consequence.

BANKRUPTCY LAWS, PAST AND PRESENT

Bankruptcy Laws, Past and Present.—William H. Hotchkiss (*q. v.*) contributes the following article on the subject of bankruptcy:

The passage of the bankruptcy law, approved July 1, 1898, was effected by a vote of 43 to 13 in the Senate, and 134 to 53 in the House. It was, necessarily, a compromise, since it was the result of agitation which had been continuous since the repeal, twenty years before, of its discredited and unpopular predecessor. The law as a whole must be accepted as a reasonable expression that it is not only the debtor that dies who is relieved of all debts, but that the unfortunate and the unwise may begin again on this side of the grave.

For more than twenty-five centuries the law-makers of the world have been legislating on bankruptcy. Draco, the pioneer, made it, with laziness and murder, punishable by death. Quite naturally there followed an age of the absconding debtor. Solon modified these ancient laws, and even abolished enslavement for debt; but the bankrupt and the bankrupt's heirs for-

feited their rights of citizenship. The noble Roman and his Twelve Tables were more draconic than Draco. Gibbon tells us that:

"At the expiration of sixty days the debt was discharged by the loss of liberty or life; the insolvent debtor was either put to death, or sold into foreign slavery beyond the Tiber; but if several creditors were alike obstinate and unrelenting, they might legally dismember his body, and satiate their revenge by this horrid partition."

In the time of Cæsar, Roman jurisprudence and civilization had so developed that the debtor, by the famous *cessio bonorum*, might at least escape slavery, and in most cases retain his civil rights; and about a century later our modern idea of a discharge to the honest debtor who gives up his all was graven on their laws.

Shylock's savage rights may well speak for the laws of the Middle Ages, whose statutes were little better than a transparent palimpsest of the Twelve Tables of Rome. French laws have followed the Latin model, and, while somewhat modernized, even yet visit a degree of disgrace upon the unfortunate trader which would not long be tolerated by an Anglo-Saxon legislature.

Since 1542 about forty bankruptcy laws and a number of insolvent-debtor acts have been passed in England. In the United States the statute of 1898 is the fourth of a series of national laws, the others being named from the years 1800, 1841, and 1867; while, in many of the States, and from their very beginning, insolvency statutes of local application and vastly divergent provisions have been on the books.

In view of the interest in the subject, the following chronology may be valuable. We take the English statutes first:

1. The statute of 1542 was aimed at absconding or concealed debtors only. It made them criminals, deprived them of their property without giving them a discharge, and left them to the tender mercies of their creditors. It was followed by a number of similar laws, enlarging its scope and changing its procedure.

2. By the statute of 1706 debt was no longer treated as a crime, and provision was for the first time made for a discharge.

3. The statute of 1825, in the reign of George IV., for the first time recognized voluntary bankruptcies.

4. The statute of 1830 abolished commissioners in bankruptcy, put the administration of estates into the hands of the court, and created the official receiver.

5. The statute of 1861 made it possible for the non-trader, who had been protected by the insolvent-debtor acts for about fifty years, to take advantage of or to be proceeded against under the general bankruptcy laws.

6. The statute of 1869 introduced in England the now well-understood principle of fraudulent preferences.

7. The statute of 1883, as amended by that of 1890, for the first time distinguished between a fraudulent bankruptcy and one due solely to misfortune. It is drastic in its penalties.

In the United States, we find that:

1. The statute of 1800 was copied from the English law of that time, and did not provide either for voluntary bankruptcy or for non-traders coming within its terms. It was repealed in December, 1803.

2. The statute of 1841, said to have been largely the work of Daniel Webster, introduced the idea of voluntary bankruptcy into our national jurisprudence. It was in force but eighteen months, being repealed by the Congress that passed it.

3. The statute of 1867 was framed largely on the Massachusetts insolvency law of 1838. It provided for both voluntary and involuntary bankruptcy, and went almost to the extreme in its enumeration of acts of bankruptcy and in its restrictions on the granting of discharges. This law permitted tedious delays and excessive fees. It remained in force until September, 1878.

4. The statute of 1898 established a new meaning for "insolvency."

Bankruptcy laws should have three purposes: 1. The surrender of the debtor's estate without preferences. 2. Its cheap and expeditious distribution *pro rata* among all creditors. 3. The discharge of the debtor from liability to pay provable debts with property which he may afterwards acquire.

Who May Become a Bankrupt?—The limitation to traders has already been mentioned. Our law of 1841 extended the meaning of the term "trader" so that, in involuntary bankruptcies, it included bankers, brokers, factors, underwriters, and marine insurers. All classes of persons could become bankrupts in England after 1861; and the like rule received expression in our law of 1867, with a single exception. The law of 1898 prohibits involuntary proceedings against farmers and wage-earners.

Its provisions relative to corporations are equally indicative of prevailing conditions. The law of 1841 was limited to natural persons. That of 1867 was made applicable to all moneyed, business, and commercial corporations. The law of 1898 limited the operation of the law to corporations engaged principally in manufacturing, trading, printing, publishing, or mercantile pursuits.

What Are Acts of Bankruptcy?—In the United States this has been the kernel of the controversy. Our laws have answered the question in widely different ways. Our laws down to and including that of 1867 have been equally mindful of the commercial runaway. The law of 1898, however, omits this cause entirely.

The present bankruptcy law of England gives eight acts of bankruptcy, three predicated on fraud coupled with insolvency, three of a voluntary character showing insolvency, and two others which are relics of the old rules against fleeing the realm or concealing property.

Our law of 1841 defined but five acts of bankruptcy, all predicated on fraud. The law of 1867, in addition to the customary grounds, specified as one of its ten acts of bankruptcy, fraudulent default in payment of commercial paper by merchants, traders, and manufacturers. The law of 1898, however, goes back to the side of leniency again. It enumerates five acts of bankruptcy, two of them involving fraud on the part of the bankrupt, one constructive fraud, and two which are expressed by the paradox that by them a debtor may go into involuntary bankruptcy voluntarily. The Torrey bill enumerated nine acts of bankruptcy, including default for thirty days in the payment of commercial paper. The Nelson bill went to the other extreme and made fraudulent transfers and voluntary preferences while insolvent the only acts of bankruptcy.

The law of 1898 declares that he only is insolvent the aggregate of whose property shall not, at a fair valuation, be sufficient in amount to pay his debts.

What Is a Preference?—This is a comparatively recent development of the law of bankruptcy. The earliest regulation is that of 1690, in Scotland, which annulled preferences made within two months of bankruptcy. The common law permitted preferences, and debts in favor of wives and female relatives in general were a refuge frequently found by the failing debtor. Our State insolvency laws, most of them sanctioning limited preferences, have proved but invitations to defraud. The preferring debtor has become one of the evils of our civilization, as was the absconding debtor of that of two centuries ago.

Beginning in 1849, in England, and in 1841, in the United States, preferences have been interdicted by law. The English statute made them void if intended to defeat or delay creditors.

Our statutes, again, evidence the swinging of the pendulum. That of 1800 did not inhibit such transactions; that of 1841 made the giving of preferences ground for refusing a discharge. The law of 1867 compelled creditors to prove knowledge on the part of the person preferred that the act was in fraud of the bankruptcy law; in short, it practically required proof of collusion by the creditor. Under the new law, a preference seems to be one thing if asserted in a voluntary proceeding, and another if alleged as an act of bankruptcy on which an involuntary proceeding is to stand. In both cases, the preference must have been made within four months of the filing of the bankrupt's petition. But, in the former, the proof need not go further, in any but exceptional cases, than to show that the act will result in giving one creditor more than others, and that such creditor had reasonable cause to believe that by the act the debtor intended to prefer him; while, in the latter, not only insolvency

—which, as we have seen, is difficult of proof—but intent to prefer, must be shown.

When May a Discharge Be Refused?—In nothing else does the English bankruptcy system differ from our own as much as in this. No discharge was granted a debtor until the reign of Anne. A little later, not only a discharge, but allowances on dividends, varying from 3 to 10 per cent., were granted to the bankrupt in order that he might get a fresh start; a provision which also appears in our bankruptcy law of 1800. Until a comparatively recent period, the discharge was of no value unless signed by a specified number of creditors, which rule seems still to prevail in France. Since 1832 discharges in England have been in the discretion of the court, subject to some rather drastic limitations of a punitive character. This discretion has been abused; and yet the present English law permits discharges to be refused for numerous reasons, such as the debtor's continuance in business after knowing himself to be insolvent, failure to pay dividends of at least 50 per cent., rash and hazardous speculations, unjustifiable extravagance in living, culpable neglect of business affairs, and failure to account satisfactorily for losses.

While the list of objections to discharges in England is on the increase, here it is growing smaller and smaller. In 1800, among other restrictions, the bankrupt was not entitled to a discharge unless he paid 75 cents on a dollar. In 1841 a majority of creditors in number and value might prevent the discharge by filing a written dissent thereto. The law of 1867, as amended in 1874, refused a discharge to voluntary bankrupts who did not pay 30 per cent. on claims proved, except with the assent of one-fourth of their creditors in number and one-third in value; and it enumerated ten acts, the commission of which might deprive him of his discharge.

The law of 1898 abolishes the semi-control of creditors over discharges, and allows a certificate to be withheld only when the debtor has committed one of the felonies enumerated in the law, or when he has *fraudulently* failed to keep, or in contemplation of bankruptcy has destroyed or concealed, his books of account. Not even a fraudulent preference is objection to a discharge.

What Is the Least Expensive and Most Expeditious Procedure?—Probably nine-tenths of the criticism of bankruptcy legislation has been directed to details of procedure. In England, for more than half a century, the lines were drawn for or against officialism. Prior to 1831 bankrupt estates were administered by three commissioners, largely controlled by the creditors. From that time down to 1869 the courts administered through their assignees. Then, for a decade or more, creditors took hold again and made a mess of it. The present law is a compromise, an official of the Board of Trade being in charge until the creditors get together and determine on action.

In the United States the administration of bankruptcy laws has too often been odorous from nepotism and onerous with costs. The present law is intended to avoid these criticisms. Rapidity in administration is commanded in words and compelled in practice, by making the payment of fees contemporaneous with the winding up of the estate. The fees themselves are small, while but one reasonable bill of costs can be allowed the bankrupt's lawyers, and any payments made to them by way of advances for legal services are subject to scrutiny. Bankruptcy courts, presided over by referees having broad judicial powers, are established in every county. Indeed, bankrupts and creditors could not well have a procedure which is simpler, less expensive, or more favorable to themselves.

In many quarters the law of 1898 and its purpose are thought typical of man's increasing humanity to man. The bankrupt will always be with us; so will the creditor. The former needs protection against the latter; the creditor can take care of himself. Thus many a good citizen may find comfort in the reflection that, if we have gone far towards preventing involuntary bankruptcy, it has been that our laws might be just rather than severe, and expressive of the principle that a score of rascals had better go unpunished rather than that one honest man should suffer oppression. This is the spirit of the age.

Old things are passing away. Sympathy sits where sternness sat. The nimble debtor is no longer part of a tragedy. He belongs to a serio-comic drama instead. Bankruptcy is not a crime, but a condition; not always a disgrace, but rather a disease; and present laws, while providing relief for him who owes, seem but negatively valuable to him who owns.

Banks, National. The plan of the national banks is believed to have originated with Salmon P. Chase, when Secretary of the Treasury. In his report for December, 1861, he recommended the gradual issue of national bank-notes, secured by the pledge of United States bonds, in preference to the further issue of United States notes, $50,000,000 of which had been issued during the previous year. A bill was soon after prepared in accordance with the Secretary's views, and printed for the use of the committee of ways and means, but it was not reported, and on July 8 following, Thaddeus Stevens, the chairmen of the committee, submitted the bill with an adverse report. The immediate necessities of the government compelled the further issue of legal-tender notes, and the consideration of the bank act was deferred. In his report for 1862, Mr. Chase again urged the passage of the national bank bill, and President Lincoln also recommended it in his message. The principal reason why Mr. Chase advocated this system was because he thought it would greatly facilitate the negotiation of the United States bonds; in other words, make it much easier for the government to borrow money. It was also claimed that it would secure for the people in all parts of the country a currency of uniform security and value, and protect them from loss in discounts and exchanges—advantages which were regarded as of much importance then, after the experience people had had with State banks whose issue was good in Pittsburg and worthless in Cleveland, and *vice versa*, and might be stable in either place one day and worthless the next, to say nothing of the annoyance of carrying $100 as many miles and finding it only rated at $40. Still, there was much opposition to the national bank bill.

Early in 1863 it was introduced into the Senate by Mr. Sherman, and referred to the finance committee, from which it was reported by him Feb. 2, and ten days later passed by a vote of 23 to 21. On the 20th of the same month it also passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 78 to 64. When the bill was revised and again brought before Congress for passage, in June, 1864, the vote in the Senate was 30 in favor and 9 against the bill. It was claimed at the time this bill was under discussion, and has been even more strongly urged since by certain classes, that all the advantages of stability and uniformity of currency could be even better secured through a government issue of notes, without the danger of the creation of a great money monopoly. There was a strong objection, however, on the part of many whose opinions had great influence against thus making the government, as it were, the one bank of issue for the country. Secretary Chase issued legal-tender notes, it is true, and thus saved the government at a most critical time from serious financial embarrassment. He defended the act as one required by the grave exigency existing rather than as the inauguration of a sound financial policy.

In January, 1875, Congress passed an act providing for the resumption of specie payments on Jan. 1, 1879. As that time approached there were preliminary movements towards that end, such as redeeming the fractional curency with silver (1876), by which a large amount of the latter coin was put into circulation. There was a very strong opposition to resumption at that time, and prophets of evil foretold infinite disasters to the business of the country. It was declared that the demand for gold would be greater than the supply; but when the day came, and the clerical force of the Sub-Treasury in New York was increased in order to facilitate the paying out of gold for "greenbacks" presented, they had nothing to do. There was actually more gold paid *in* than was paid *out*. From that hour the business of the country permanently revived for the first time since the great revulsion of 1873.

By act of Congress, March 3, 1883, the taxes on capital and deposits of banks, bankers, and national banking associa-

tions, excepting such as were already due, were repealed, and also the stamp tax on bank-checks, drafts, orders, and vouchers, the latter provision to take effect on July 1, 1883. The act of Feb. 25, 1863, limited the period of existence of the national banks to twenty years; but an act of July 10, 1882, provided for the extension of the charters of all national banks under prescribed conditions for twenty years more, and under this act many banks reorganized for the longer period. In the war revenue act of 1898 a stamp tax of two cents was imposed on every bank-check, and in March, 1900, the President approved a new currency act which established the gold dollar as the standard unit of value, permitted national banks to be organized in places of 3,000 population or less with a capital of $25,000, instead of $50,000, the previous minimum, and provided that banks might issue circulation on all classes of bonds deposited up to the par value of the bonds, instead of to 90 per cent. of their face value as before.

National banking statistics for the year ending Oct. 31, 1903, as officially reported, contained returns from 5,147 such banks. These reported an aggregate capital of $764,420,314; loans and discounts, $3,481,446,772; outstanding circulation, $419,610,683; individual deposits, $3,305,900,000; and combined resources exceeding $6,000,000,000, the largest amount ever reported. See CIRCULATION, MONETARY; COINAGE; CURRENCY; U. S. BANKS.

Banks, SAVINGS. The savings banks in the United States are divided into two classes—the mutual and the stock. In 1903 the mutual savings banks numbered 657, and had 6,116,594 depositors, and $2,720,106,754 in resources, and held savings deposits aggregating $2,512,468,458. The stock savings banks numbered 421, and had an aggregate capital of $20,116,660, 557,643 depositors, and $337,042,450 in resources, and held $303,014,648 in deposits. The aggregate of the two kinds of savings banks was: Total number, 1,078; depositors, 6,674,237; resources, $3,057,149,204; and combined deposits, $2,815,483,106. In several of the States, particularly in Massachusetts, organizations called co-operative banks to a large extent take the place of the ordinary savings banks elsewhere, and building and loan associations, as well as loan and trust companies, also act practically as savings banks.

Banks, STATE. Official reports covering the various banks organized under State and Territorial charters for the banking year ending at various periods in 1903, gave the following summaries: Number of banks, 5,962; capital, $302,264,497; deposits, $1,814,570,163; surplus, $129,647,875; and resources, $2,491,428,760. Sectionally, the largest number of such banks were in the Middle States, 2,120; the Western States ranked second, with 1,661; the Southern States third, with 1,442; the Eastern States fourth, with 355; the Pacific States fifth, with 341; and the New England States sixth, with 21.

Banks, WILD-CAT, a designation of a class of banks in various parts of the country, and especially in the Western States, founded prior to the enactment of the national banking law. This peculiar designation was originally applied to a number of banks organized under State charters in Michigan, because their notes of circulation contained upon their face the picture of a panther. Many of these banks very soon became unsound, and when it was found that their notes were worthless these banks became the type of a worthless currency, and all money and banks of doubtful value became known as wild-cats. This designation in time was extended to a large number of insurance companies, especially in Illinois. See BANK OF THE UNITED STATES; GRAVEYARD INSURANCE.

Banks, NATHANIEL PRENTISS, military officer; born in Waltham, Mass., Jan. 30, 1816. His early education was obtained at a common school. He became a lawyer and Democratic orator; edited a newspaper in Waltham and Lowell; and during the administration of President Polk held office in the Boston Custom-house. In 1849 he was a member of the Massachusetts legislature, and speaker of the Lower House in 1851–52. He was president of the State Constitutional Convention in 1853, and a member of Congress in 1853–57, separating from the Democratic party on the question of slavery; and, after a long contest, was elected speaker of the House of Representatives

in 1855. Mr. Banks was chosen governor of Massachusetts in 1858, and served until 1861. When the Civil War broke out he

NATHANIEL PRENTISS BANKS.

was president of the Illinois Central Railroad. Offering his services to President Lincoln, he was made a major-general of volunteers May 16, 1861, and appointed to command the Annapolis military district. General Banks was an active and skilful leader in various battles during the war in Virginia and in the region of the lower Mississippi and Red rivers. In 1865–73, 1875–77, and 1889–91 he was a Representative in Congress, and subsequently he was United States marshal. He died in Waltham, Sept. 1, 1894.

Banneker, BENJAMIN, a negro mathematician; born in Maryland, Nov. 9, 1731. He taught himself mathematics; and for many years, while engaged in daily labor, made the necessary calculations for and published an almanac for Maryland and the adjoining States. Mr. Jefferson presented one of his almanacs to the French Academy of Sciences, where it excited wonder and admiration, and the *African Almanac* became well known to the scientific circles of Europe. In 1790 he was employed by the commissioners in the survey of the boundaries of the District of Columbia. His grandmother was an Englishwoman, who purchased a small plantation in Maryland, bought two slaves from a ship just from Africa, and married one of them. He died in Baltimore, in October, 1806.

Bannock Indians, a tribe of North American Indians, sometimes called the "Robber Indians." It was divided into two distinct branches: the first inhabited the region between lat. 42° and 45° and reaching from long. 113° to the Rocky Mountains; the second claimed all of the southwestern part of Montana. The first branch was the more numerous. In 1869 the Bannocks of the Salmon River numbered only 350, having been reduced by small-pox and invasions of the Blackfeet. In that year about 600 of the Southern tribe were settled on the Wind River reservation, and in the same year 600 more were sent to the Fort Hall reservation. Most of the latter afterwards left the reservation, but returned with the Shoshones and the scattered Bannocks of the southern part of Idaho in 1874. In 1900 the Bannocks were reduced to 430 at the Fort Hall agency, and eighty-five at the Lemhi agency, both in Idaho.

Baptist Church, a flourishing denomination of evangelical Christians who differ from others in respect to the mode of administering the rite of baptism. They reject sprinkling, and hold that immersion of the whole body is the only valid mode of baptism, and essential to its specific spiritual purpose; a mode, they claim, that was universally practised throughout Christendom for 1,300 years. Their Church government is democratic. Their writers trace their origin to the third century; and they have ever been the champions of civil and religious liberty. Until the Quakers arose, at the middle of the seventeenth century, they stood alone in the advocacy of "soul-liberty." There were none in America when Roger Williams founded Providence. Before he left England he had been under the teachings of Baptists there, some of whom had been refugees from persecution in Holland. These had instituted baptism among themselves by authorizing certain of their members to be administrators of the rite. Cast out from the Congregational churches in Massachusetts, Williams conceived the idea of forming a Baptist Church in his new home in Providence, after the manner of the refugees in Holland, but in a more simple form. In March, 1639, Ezekiel Holliman, a layman, first baptized Williams, and then Williams baptized

Holliman and "some ten more." These men then formed a Baptist Church there. But Williams did not remain a Baptist long. He very early doubted the validity of Holliman's baptism, and consequently of his own. He believed "a visible succession of authorized administrators of baptism" to be necessary to insure its validity, and in the course of two months he withdrew from the Church, and never rejoined it. But the Church and its principles remained, and the colony embodied in its first code of laws (1637) a provision for perfect toleration in matters of religion. In 1764, when numbering only about 5,000 members in all America, the Baptists established their first college in Rhode Island (see BROWN UNIVERSITY). With one exception, the Baptists are the largest denomination of evangelical Christians in the United States. It is said that the first article of the amendments to the national Constitution, guaranteeing religious liberty (offered in 1789), was introduced chiefly through the influence of the Baptist denomination.

The Baptist Church in 1900 was divided into the Regular Baptist, North; Regular Baptist, South; and Regular Baptist, Colored. Besides these there were ten other Church organizations so closely allied with the Regular Baptist Church as to be officially grouped with the Regular Church. Reports for 1899 gave the following summaries for the thirteen Baptist bodies: Ministers, 33,088; churches, 49,721; and members, 4,443,628. The Northern and Southern branches of the Regular Baptist Church had 14,409 ministers, 27,893 churches, and 2,586,671 members; and the Regular Baptist Church, Colored, had 14,000 ministers, 15,000 churches, and 1,555,324 members. The largest of the other bodies was the Primitive Baptist Church, which reported 2,130 ministers, 3,530 churches, and 126,000 members. The Freewill Baptist Church followed, with 1,312 ministers, 1,517 churches, and 85,242 members.

Baraga, FREDERICK, clergyman; born in Carniola, Austria, June 29, 1797; in 1830 determined to devote his life to the conversion of Indians in the United States; settled among the Ottawas in Michigan. In 1856 he was appointed Bishop of Marquette. In addition to translating prayer-books, hymn-books, catechisms, etc., into the Indian language, he wrote in German the *History, Character, Manners, and Customs of the North American Indians.* He died in Marquette, Mich., Jan. 19, 1868.

Barbary States. See ALGIERS.

Barber, FRANCIS, military officer; born in Princeton, N. J., in 1751; was graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1767, and became rector of an academy at Elizabeth, N. J., and pastor of the Presbyterian Church there in 1769. Leaving these posts, he joined the New Jersey line in the Continental army as major, in February, 1776. In November he was made a lieutenant-colonel, and was afterwards assistant inspector-general under Baron Steuben. He was active in several battles, and was wounded in the battle of Newtown. In 1781 he was successful in quelling the mutiny of Pennsylvania and New Jersey troops. He was with the army at Newburg in 1783, where he died, Feb. 11, the same year.

Barber, JOHN WARNER, historian; born in Windsor, Conn., Feb. 2, 1798; wrote many books, including *Historical Collections of Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, and Ohio; History and Antiquities of New England, New York, and New Jersey,* etc. Much of his work was done in co-operation with HENRY HOWE (*q. v.*). He died in New Haven, in June, 1885.

Barbour, JAMES, statesman; born in Orange county, Va., June 10, 1775; member of the Virginia board of delegates, 1796–1812; governor, 1812; United States Senator, 1815; Secretary of War, 1825; minister to England, 1828. He died in Orange county, Va., June 8, 1842.

Barbour, PHILIP PENDLETON, jurist; born in Orange county, Va., May 25, 1783; member of Congress from 1814 to 1825 and 1827 to 1830; speaker of the House, 1821; judge of the United States circuit court of the eastern district of Virginia, 1830 to 1836; justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1836–41. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 24, 1841.

Barclay, ROBERT, author; born in Gordonston, Scotland, Dec. 23, 1648. Barclay made journeys in England, Holland, and Germany with William Penn. He was one of the proprietors of east Jersey, and in

1682 he was appointed its governor (see NEW JERSEY); but he exercised the office by a deputy. He died in Ury, Oct. 13, 1690.

Bard, JOHN, physician; born in Burlington, N. J., Feb. 1, 1716; was of a Huguenot family, and was for seven years a surgeon's apprentice in Philadelphia. Establishing himself in New York, he soon ranked among the first physicians and surgeons in America. In 1750 he assisted Dr. Middleton in the first recorded dissection in America. In 1788 he became the first president of the New York Medical Society; and when, in 1795, the yellow fever raged in New York, he remained at his post, though then nearly eighty years of age. He died in Hyde Park, N. Y., March 30, 1799.

Bard, SAMUEL, physician; born in Philadelphia, April 1, 1742; son of Dr. John Bard; studied at the University of Edinburgh, where he passed about three years, and was an inmate of the family of Dr. Robertson, the historian. Having graduated as M.D. in 1765, he returned home, and began the practice of medicine in New York City with his father. He organized a medical school, which was connected with King's (Columbia) College, in which he took the chair of physic in 1769. In 1772 he purchased his father's business. He caused the establishment of a public hospital in the city of New York in 1791, and, while the seat of the national government was at New York, he was the physician of President Washington. He was also appointed president of the College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1813. While combating yellow fever in New York in 1798, he took the disease, but by the faithful nursing of his wife he recovered. Dr. Bard was a skilful horticulturist as well as an eminent physician. He died May 24, 1821.

Barentz, WILLEM, navigator; born in Holland; commanded exploring expeditions to Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen in 1594–97. His first expedition was an attempt to find a passage through the Arctic Ocean to China, in which he reached lat. 78° N. On his third and last expedition, in 1596–97, he reached lat. 80° 11′ N., and discovered Spitzbergen. He died near Nova Zembla, June 20, 1597. Captain Carlsen, after a lapse of 274 years, found Barentz's winter quarters undisturbed in 1871; and some of the navigator's journals were recovered in 1876.

Barker, ALBERT SMITH, naval officer; born in Massachusetts; entered the navy in 1859; served under Farragut in the bombardment and passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip; and in an attempted passage of Port Hudson his vessel was blown up, after which he took part in the siege of that post on the *Monongahela*. He was actively employed throughout the Civil War; was promoted to captain in 1892; commanded the cruiser *Newark* in the American-Spanish War (1898); succeeded Capt. CHARLES EDGAR CLARK (*q. v.*) as commander of the famous battle-ship *Oregon* after the close of the war; and became a rear-admiral in 1899.

Barker, JACOB, financier; born on Swan Island, Kennebec co., Me., Dec. 7, 1779; was of a Quaker family, and related by blood to the mother of Dr. Franklin. He began trade in New York when quite

JACOB BARKER.

young, and at twenty-one he owned four ships and a brig, and was largely engaged in commercial transactions. As a State Senator, and while sitting in the Court

of Errors, he gave an opinion in an insurance case in opposition to Judge Kent, and was sustained by the court. During the War of 1812 his ships were all captured. Being in Washington, D. C., during its sack by the British (August, 1814), he assisted Mrs. Madison in saving Stuart's portrait of Washington, then hanging in the President's house, which was set on fire a few hours later. Barker was a banker, a dealer in stocks, and a general and shrewd financier for many years. He finally established himself in New Orleans in 1834, where he was admitted to the bar as a lawyer, and soon became a political and business leader there. He made and lost several fortunes during his long life. The Civil War wrought his financial ruin, and late in 1867 he was again in bankruptcy, at the age of eighty-eight years. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 26, 1871.

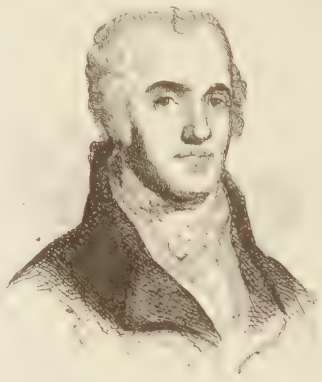
Barker, JOSIAH, shipbuilder; born in Marshfield, Mass., Nov. 16, 1763; served at intervals throughout the Revolution in both the army and the navy. He established a ship-yard in 1795 in Charlestown, Mass., where he built, as United States naval constructor, the *Virginia*, *Warren*, *Cumberland*, and other men-of-war, and rebuilt the *Constitution*. He died in Charlestown, Mass., Sept. 23, 1843.

Barker, WHARTON, banker; born in Philadelphia, Pa., May 1, 1846; was graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1866, after having served in the Union army in the Civil War; founded the banking firm of Barker Brothers & Co., which in 1878 was appointed financial agent in the United States of the Russian government, and supervisor of the building of four cruisers for its navy; and was the Presidential nominee of the Middle-of-the-Road or Anti-Fusion People's party, in 1900.

Barlow, ARTHUR, navigator; born about 1550; died about 1620. See AMIDAS.

Barlow, FRANCIS CHANNING, military officer; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 19, 1834; was graduated at Harvard University in 1855. After serving as a three months' man, at the beginning of the Civil War, he became a lieutenant-colonel of a New York regiment, and as colonel distinguished himself in the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862. In the battle of Antietam he captured two stands of colors and 300 men, and was soon afterwards wounded and carried off the field for dead. He was made brigadier-general in September, and he commanded a division in the battle of Chancellorsville in May, 1863. He was wounded at Gettysburg, and was also distinguished in the Richmond campaign in 1864. He rendered essential service in the final struggle that ended with the surrender of Lee; was mustered out of the service in 1865 with the rank of major-general; was secretary of state of New York in 1865–68; United States marshal in 1868–69; and attorney-general of New York in 1871–73. He died in New York City, Jan. 11, 1896.

Barlow, JOEL, poet; born in Reading, Conn., March 24, 1754; was graduated at Yale College in 1778; studied theology and was licensed a Congregational minister; and from 1778 to 1783 was a chaplain in the army, writing patriotic songs and addresses to keep up the spirits of the soldiers. When the army was disbanded (1783) he settled at Hartford, where he began to study law, and was admitted to the bar in 1785. He had tried book-selling; and, in 1792, he established a weekly newspaper, entitled the *American Mercury*, published at Westford. His poetic talents becoming widely known, he was requested by several Congregational ministers to revise the phraseology of Watts's hymns. He also attempted to revise the Bible in



JOEL BARLOW.

the same way. A cousin of Benedict Arnold, who would talk in doggerel rhyme, was asked by Barlow to give him a specimen of his poetic talent. Arnold looked the poet sharply in the face, and said, instantly:

"You've proved yourself a sinful cretur,
You've murdered Watts and spiled the metre,
You've tried the Word of God to alter,
And for your pains deserve a halter."

With Trumbull, Dwight, Humphreys, and others, Barlow published a satirical poem entitled *The Anarchiad.* In 1787 he published his *Vision of Columbus,* a poem which obtained great popularity. Visiting Europe in 1788 as agent for the Scioto Land Company, he published, in aid of the French Revolution, *Advice to the Privileged Orders.* To this he added, in 1791, a *Letter to the National Convention,* and the *Conspiracy of Kings.* As deputy of the London Constitutional Society, he presented an address to the French National Convention, and took up his abode in Paris, where he became a French citizen. Barlow was given employment in Savoy, where he wrote his mock-heroic poem, *Hasty Pudding.* He was United States consul at Algiers in 1795–97, where he negotiated treaties with the ruler of that state, and also with the Bey of Tunis. He took sides with the French Directory in their controversy with the American envoys. (See DIRECTORY, THE FRENCH.) Having made a large fortune by speculations in France, Mr. Barlow returned to the United States in 1805, and built himself an elegant mansion in the vicinity of Washington, and called his seat there "Kalorama." In 1807 he published the *Columbiad,* an epic poem. It was illustrated with engravings, some of them from designs by Robert Fulton, and published in a quarto volume in a style more sumptuous than any book that had then been issued in the United States. It was an enlargement of his *Vision of Columbus.* In 1811 he commenced the preparation of a *History of the United States,* when President Madison appointed him minister plenipotentiary to the French Court. The next year he was invited to a conference with Napoleon at Wilna, for the nominal object of completing a commercial treaty with the United States. It was believed by the war party that some arrangements would be made by which French ships, manned by Americans, might be employed against Great Britain. But such hopes were soon extinguished. Barlow set out from Paris immediately, and, as the call was urgent, he travelled day and night, without rest. The fatigue and exposure brought on a disease of the lungs, and, in the cottage of a Polish Jew at Zarnowice, near Cracow, he suddenly expired, Dec. 24, 1812, from the effects of a violent congestion of the pulmonary organs. What the real object of Napoleon's call was may never be known.

Barnard, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS PORTER, educator; born in Sheffield, Mass., May 5, 1809; was graduated at Yale College in 1828; president of the University of Mississippi in 1856–58, and chancellor in 1858–61. In 1861, on account of the Civil War, he resigned his offices in the university. He was president of Columbia College, New York City, in 1864–88. At various times he held responsible appointments under the United States government, and was a member of many scientific and literary societies. He was a strong advocate of the higher education of women, and was instrumental in founding the women's "Annex" to Columbia College, which afterwards was given his name, and in 1900 was made a part of Columbia University. Among his works are *Letters on College Government; Report on Collegiate Education; Art Culture; History of the American Coast Survey; University Education; Undulatory*

F. A. P. BARNARD.

Theory of Light; Machinery and Processes of the Industrial Arts, and Apparatus of the Exact Sciences; Metric System of Weights and Measures. He died in New York, April 27, 1889.

Barnard, HENRY, educator; born in Hartford, Conn., Jan. 24, 1811; was graduated at Yale College in 1830; admitted to the bar in 1835, and elected to a seat in the State legislature in 1837. He was twice re-elected. In that body he effected a reorganization of the Connecticut State school system, and was for four years secretary of the board of school commissioners, during which he wrote a number of able reports on the public schools. His first report (1839) was pronounced by Chancellor Kent a "bold and startling document, founded on the most painstaking and critical inquiry." He edited and published the *Connecticut School Journal.* From 1843 to 1849 he had charge of the public schools of Rhode Island, where he established a model system of popular education. Dr. Barnard took great interest in the subject of school-house architecture; and from 1850 to 1854 he was State superintendent of public schools of Connecticut. In 1855 he began the publication of the *American Journal of Education.* The same year he became president of the American Association for the Advancement of Education, and was offered the presidency of two State universities. When the Bureau of Education was established at Washington, he was appointed the first commissioner (March, 1867). He resigned this office in 1870. Dr. Barnard wrote much and well on the subject of popular education. A London review, speaking of his work on *National Education in Europe* (1854), said: "He has collected and arranged more valuable information and statistics than can be found in any one volume in the English language." Dr. Barnard received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard, Yale, and Union colleges. He died in Hartford, July 5, 1900.

Barnard, JOHN GROSS, military engineer; born in Sheffield, Mass., May 19, 1815; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1833, and entered the engineer corps. He was made captain in 1838; major in 1858; brevet brigadier-general of volunteers in 1861; lieutenant-colonel of regulars in 1863; brevet major-general of volunteers in 1864; brevet brigadier-general and brevet major-general of regulars, March, 1865; and colonel of the corps of engineers, regular army, Dec. 28, the same year. During the war with Mexico he fortified Tampico, and made surveys of the battle-fields around the capital. In 1850–51 he was chief engineer of the projected Tehuantepec Railroad; and in 1855–56 he was superintendent of the United States Military Academy. He was chief engineer of the Army of the Potomac, 1861–62; also chief engineer of the construction of the defences of the national capital from September, 1862, to May, 1864. He was chief engineer of the armies in the field on General Grant's staff, from May, 1864, until Lee's surrender at Appomattox in April, 1865. At the close of the war he was brevetted major-general, U. S. A. He published *The Gyroscope* and *Problems in Rotary Motions,* which evince profound mathematical investigation; also other works concerning the Civil War and its operations. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by Yale College. He died in Detroit, Mich., May 14, 1882.

Barnburners, a name given to radical or progressive politicians in the United States, and opposed to HUNKERS (*q. v.*). It was given to the anti-slavery section of the Democratic party, especially in New York, which separated from the rest of the Democratic National Convention in 1846. They were opposed to certain corporations, and they desired to do away with *all* corporations. They received their name from the story of the man whose house was infested with rats, and who burned it to the ground to get rid of the vermin. At about that time anti-rent outrages were committed, such as burning barns, etc. The radical Democrats sympathized with the Anti-Renters, and the Hunkers called them "barnburners." See ANTI-RENT PARTY; FREE-SOIL PARTY; HUNKERS.

Barnes, JAMES, author; born in Annapolis, Md., Sept. 19, 1866; was graduated at Princeton College in 1891; author *of Naval Actions of 1812; For King or Country; A Loyal Traitor; Midshipman Farragut,* etc.

Barnes, JAMES, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., about 1809; was graduated at West Point in 1829, and resigned in 1836. He became colonel of a Massachusetts volunteer regiment in 1861, and in November of that year was made brigadier-general in the Army of the Potomac, participating in its most exciting operations. He commanded a division at the battle of Gettysburg, and was severely wounded. He was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865, and was mustered out of the service Jan. 15, 1866. He died in Springfield, Mass., Feb. 12, 1869.

Barnes, JOSEPH K., medical officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 21, 1817; was appointed an assistant surgeon in the army in 1840; assigned to duty in the office of the surgeon-general in 1861; became surgeon-general in 1863; attended Presidents Lincoln and Garfield; brevetted major-general in 1865. At his suggestion the Army Medical Museum and the Surgeon-General's Library were established. He died in Washington, D. C., April 5, 1883.

Barney, JOSHUA, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., July 6, 1759. Inclined to a seafaring life, he went to sea in his early youth; and when he was only sixteen years of age, an accident caused the care of his ship to devolve upon him. He met the exigency with courage and skill. He entered the Continental navy, at its first organization in 1775, as master's mate, in the sloop *Hornet*, and joined Commodore Hopkins. In an action between the Continental schooner *Wasp* and British brig *Tender*, in Delaware Bay, before he was seventeen years of age, his conduct was so gallant that he was made a lieutenant. In that capacity he served in the *Sachem* (Capt. I. Robinson), and after a severe action with a British brig, in which his commander was wounded, young Barney brought her into port. Soon afterwards he was made a prisoner, but was speedily released, and in the *Andrea Doria* he was engaged in the defence of the Delaware River in 1777. He was again made prisoner, and was exchanged in August, 1778. A third time he was made captive (1779), and after his exchange was a fourth time made a prisoner, while serving in the *Saratoga*, 16, was sent to England, and confined in the famous Mill prison, from which he escaped in May, 1781. He was retaken, and again escaped, and arrived in Philadelphia in March, 1782, where he took command of the *Hyder Ali*, 16, in which he captured the *General Monk*, of heavier force and metal. For this exploit the legislature of Maryland presented him with a sword. At the close of the war he engaged in business on shore, but very soon took to the sea again. At Cape François, W. I., he received on his ship (1792) a large number of women and children who had escaped massacre by the blacks. His vessel was captured by an English cruiser, but Barney recaptured her from the prize crew. He was again captured by an English cruiser (1793), and imprisoned as a pirate. His ship and cargo were condemned. In 1794 he went with Monroe to France, and bore

JOSHUA BARNEY.

the American flag to the National Convention (see MONROE, JAMES). He was a warm partisan of the French, and entered their navy as commander of a squadron, but resigned his commission in 1802. When the War of 1812–15 broke out, he engaged in privateering with much success. He was appointed captain in the United States navy in April, 1814,

and placed in command of a flotilla of small vessels for the defence of the coasts of the Chesapeake. Driven up the Patuxent by a British fleet, he destroyed his vessels, and with over 500 men he joined General Winder in the defence of Washington (see BLADENSBURG, BATTLE AT). Barney was severely wounded (Aug. 24, 1814) near Bladensburg, and made a prisoner. Too much hurt to be removed as a prisoner, he was paroled and sent to Bladensburg, near by, on a litter. There he was joined by his wife and son and his own surgeon, and was conveyed to his farm at Elkridge, Md. The bullet that gave him the wound, from which he never fairly recovered, is preserved in the Navy Department. The corporation of Washington voted him a sword, and the legislature of Georgia their thanks. In May, 1815, Barney was sent on a mission to Europe, but suffering from his wound caused him to return in the fall. Just as he was about to depart from Pittsburg, Pa., with his family, to Kentucky, where he had bought land, he died, Dec. 1, 1818.

Barnum, PHINEAS TAYLOR, showman; born in Bethel, Conn., July 5, 1810. In 1834 he began his career as a showman by exhibiting an old negress called Joyce Heth as the nurse of George Washington. He brought Jenny Lind to America in 1849, exhibited Tom Thumb, etc. He died in Bridgeport, Conn., April 7, 1891.

Barnum, WILLIAM H., statesman; born in Boston Corners, N. Y., Sept. 17, 1818; elected to the State legislature in 1852; member of Congress, 1866–76; United States Senator, 1876–79; chairman of the national Democratic executive committee, 1880 and 1884. He died in Lime Rock, Conn., April 30, 1889.

Barnwell, JOHN, military officer; born in Ireland, about 1671; in 1712, with a regiment of 600 Carolinians and several hundred friendly Indians, killed 300 of the warring Tuscaroras in the first engagement and drove the survivors into their fortified town, where they were finally reduced to submission. Over 1,000 of them were killed or captured, and the remnant joined the Five Nations of New York. He died in Beaufort, S. C., in 1724.

Barnwell, ROBERT WOODWARD, statesman; born in Beaufort, S. C., Aug. 10, 1801; member of Congress, 1829–33; United States Senator, 1850–51; commissioner from South Carolina to Washington, December, 1860; gave the casting vote that elected Jefferson Davis President of the Confederate States. He died in Columbia, S. C., Nov. 25, 1882.

Barras, COUNT LOUIS DE, naval officer; born in Provence, France; was one of the chief officers of the Marquis de Ternay, commander of the French squadron sent to aid the Americans in 1781. He was designated to represent the navy in the conference between Washington and Rochambeau in Wethersfield, Conn., May 23, 1781, but was unable to be present on account of the sudden appearance of the British squadron off Block Island. In September following he effected a junction with the squadron of De Grasse in Chesapeake Bay, and the enlarged French fleet prevented the British fleet from going to the rescue of Lord Cornwallis, and so made certain the surrender of the British at Yorktown. He died about 1800.

Barre, ANTOINE LE FEVRE DE LA, French general and author; born about 1605; was appointed lieutenant-general of the army in 1667, and sent against the English in the West Indies. After a successful campaign he was appointed governor of Canada in 1682, and held the office for three years. In 1684 he prepared for an expedition from Canada to the country of the FIVE NATIONS (*q. v.*). His forces consisted of 700 Canadians, 130 regular soldiers, and 200 Indians. Detained by an epidemic disease among the French soldiers at Fort Frontenac for six weeks, he was compelled to conclude the campaign with a treaty. He crossed Lake Ontario for that purpose, and at a designated place was met by Oneidas, Onondagas, and Cayugas, the Mohawks and Senecas refusing to attend. Barre assumed much dignity. Seated on a chair of state, with his French and Indian officers forming a circle around him, he addressed himself to Garangula, the Onondaga chief, in a very haughty speech, which he concluded with a threat of burning the castles of the Five Nations and destroying the Indians themselves unless the satisfaction which he demanded was given. To this address Garangula made a cool but bold and decisive speech in

reply. It made the haughty Barre very angry, and he retired to his tent, where, after deliberation, he prudently suspended his menaces. A treaty of peace was concluded; and two days afterwards Barre and his retinue departed for Canada. He died in Paris, May 4, 1688.

Barré, ISAAC, military officer; born in Dublin, Ireland, in 1726. His parents were French, his father being a small tradesman in Dublin. Isaac entered the British army at the age of twenty-one, and participated in the expedition against

ISAAC BARRÉ.
(From an old print.)

Louisburg in 1758. Wolfe was his friend, and appointed him major of brigade; and in May, 1759, he was made adjutant-general of Wolfe's army that assailed Quebec. He was severely wounded in the battle on the Plains of Abraham, by which he lost the sight of one eye. Barré served under Amherst in 1760; and was the official bearer of the news of the surrender of Montreal to England. In 1761 he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel, and the same year he obtained a seat in Parliament, where he found himself in opposition to the ministry. For this offence he was deprived of his offices, given him as a reward for his services in America. He was the warm friend of the colonies, and made able speeches in Parliament in their favor. Barré was one of the supposed authors of the *Letters of Junius.* Strong in person, vigorous in mind, independent in thought and action, he was a dreaded opponent. During the last twenty years of his life he was blind. He died in London, July 20, 1802.

Barren Hill, near Valley Forge, Pa. General Washington detached General Lafayette, May 18, 1778, with about 2,100 men, to watch the British. He occupied Barren Hill, where he was approached by about 5,000 British troops on May 20, intending a surprise. Lafayette, assuming to be preparing to meet the attack, skilfully passed the enemy, retreated across the Schuylkill, and occupied a strong position, whereupon the British retired.

Barrett, JOHN, diplomatist; born in Grafton, Vt., Nov. 28, 1866; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1889, and engaged in journalism. He was minister to Siam in 1894–98, and represented several United States newspapers during the Philippine campaign in 1898.

Barriger, JOHN WALKER, military officer; born in Shelby county, Ky., July 9, 1832; graduated at West Point in 1856; brevet captain for services at Bull Run; served in the commissary department. He wrote the legislative history of the subsistence department of the United States army, 1876.

Barron, JAMES, naval officer; born in Virginia in 1769. On the formation of the United States navy in 1798, Barron (who had begun his naval career under his father, commander of the Virginia navy during the Revolutionary War) was made a lieutenant, and served under Barry in the brief naval war with France. In 1799 he was made a captain and sent to the Mediterranean, under the command of his elder brother, Com. Samuel Barron, one of the best disciplinarians in the service. James was in command of the frigate *Chesapeake* in 1807, and surrendered her to the *Leopard,* a British ship-of-war, for which he was court-martialled and sentenced to be suspended from service for five years without pay or emoluments. During that suspension he entered the merchant service, and remained abroad until 1818, when an attempt was made to restore him to duty in the naval service. Commodore Decatur and other

officers resisted this, and a bitter correspondence between Barron and Decatur ensued. Barron challenged his antagonist to fight a duel. They met near Bladensburg (March 22, 1820), and Decatur was mortally wounded. Barron was severely hurt, but recovered after several months of suffering. During the latter years of his long life Barron held several important commands on shore. He became senior officer of the navy in 1839, and died in Norfolk, Va., April 21, 1851.

JAMES BARRON.

Barron, SAMUEL, naval officer; was born in Hampton, Va., about 1763; brother of James. He, like his brother, had a training in the navy under his father. In 1798 he commanded the *Augusta*, prepared by the citizens of Norfolk to resist the aggressions of the French. He took a conspicuous part in the war with Tripoli, and in 1805 he commanded a squadron of ten vessels, with the *President* as the flag-ship. He assisted in the capture of the Tripolitan town of Derné, April 27, 1805. Barron soon afterwards relinquished his command to Capt. John Rodgers, and on account of ill-health returned to the United States. He died Oct. 29, 1810.

Barrows, JOHN HENRY, clergyman; born in Medina, Mich., July 11, 1847; was graduated at Olivet College, Mich., in 1867, and studied at Yale, Union, and Andover theological seminaries, and at Göttingen, Germany. After two short pastorates in Lawrence and Boston, Mass., he became pastor of the First Presbyterian Church, Chicago, and remained there more than fourteen years. In 1893 he organized and was the president of the World's Parliament of Religions. In 1896 he resigned his Chicago pastorate and went to India, where he lectured in an institution endowed by Mrs. Caroline E. Haskell. Returning to the United States, he lectured in the Union Theological Seminary in 1898, and in November of that year became president of Oberlin College. He published *History of the Parliament of Religions; Life of Henry Ward Beecher; Christianity the World Religion*, etc. He died in Oberlin, O., June 3, 1902.

Barry, JOHN, naval officer; born in Tacumshane, Wexford co., Ireland, in 1745. He went to sea while he was very young, became the commander of a ship, and gained considerable wealth. In February, 1776, he was appointed by Congress to command the *Lexington*, fourteen guns, which, after a sharp action, captured the tender *Edward*. This was the first vessel captured by a commissioned officer of the United States navy. Barry

JOHN BARRY.

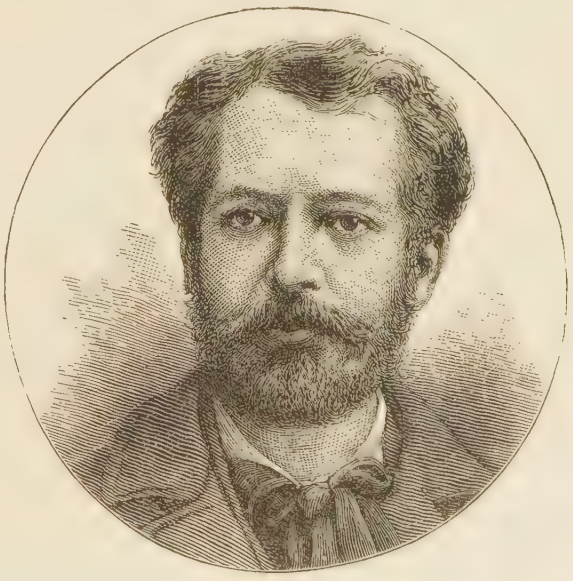
was transferred to the frigate *Effingham;* and in the Delaware, at the head of four boats, he captured an English schooner, in 1777, without the loss of a man. He was publicly thanked by Washington. When Howe took Philadelphia, late in 1777, Barry took the *Effingham* up the Delaware with the hope of saving her, but she was burned by the British. Howe had offered him a large bribe if he would deliver the ship to him at Philadelphia, but it was scornfully rejected. Barry took command of the *Raleigh*, 32, in September, 1778, but British cruisers compelled him to run her ashore in Penobscot Bay. In the frigate *Alliance*, in 1781, he sailed for France with Col. John Laurens, who was sent on a special mission; and afterwards he cruised successfully with that ship. At the close of May he captured the *Atlanta* and *Trespass*, after a severe fight. Returning in October, the *Alliance* was refitted, and, after taking Lafayette and the Count de Noailles to France, Barry cruised in the West Indies very successfully until May, 1782. After the reorganization of the United States navy in 1794, Barry was named the senior officer. He superintended the building of the frigate *United States*, to the command of which he was assigned, but never entered upon the duty. He died in Philadelphia, Sept. 13, 1803.

Barry, William Taylor, statesman; born in Lunenburg, Va., Feb. 5, 1785; was a member of the Kentucky legislature; member of Congress, 1810–11; United States Senator, 1815–16; Postmaster-General, 1829–35; appointed minister to Spain, 1835, and on his way to his post died in Liverpool, England, Aug. 20, 1835.

Barter, the exchange of one commodity for another, and also the commodity so exchanged. Bartering is traceable to the days of savage races, when one article, usually the product of agriculture or the hunt, was exchanged for another article of the same relative value. In primitive American days the most common articles were food animals, food products, skins, and weapons of defence and the hunt. For many years after the introduction of tobacco that product was the chief commodity for bartering, while among the Indians wampum was used the same as money tokens in later times.

Bartholdi, Frédéric Auguste, French sculptor; born in Colmar, Alsace, April 2, 1834; received the Cross of the Legion of Honor in 1865, and is best known in the United States by his colossal statue in New York Harbor, entitled *Liberty Enlightening the World.* His other works include a statue of Lafayette in Union Square, New York, and a bronze group of Lafayette and Washington, presented by American citizens to the city of Paris, and unveiled Dec. 1, 1895.

In 1870 a movement was inaugurated in France to present to the United States a suitable memorial to testify to the fraternal feeling existing between the two countries. In 1874 the French-American Union was formed for the furtherance of this object. It was decided to present



FRÉDÉRIC AUGUSTE BARTHOLDI.

to the United States a colossal statue of *Liberty Enlightening the World*, and more than 1,000,000 francs were raised by popular subscription for that purpose. Of the various models submitted to the committee having the matter in charge, that of M. Bartholdi was selected as the best, and the statue was constructed by him.

It is the largest statue ever made, and the most conspicuous example of repoussé work —that is, thin sheets of hammered brass laid over a frame-work of iron. First, a life-size clay statue after the design was made, then three plaster statues, the first one-sixteenth, the second one-fourth the size of the complete work, and the third its full size, the last-named being made in sections, over a wooden frame-work. The most accurate measurements were necessary in making these statues in order to preserve accurate proportions. Then came the work of copying the full-size statue in wooden models. These were all carefully made by hand, each piece exactly fitting every curve or irregularity of surface in some part of the figure. Into these moulds the sheets of brass were laid and beaten down until they exactly fitted them. There were 300 sheets of brass used, each from one to three yards square, and weighing in all 88 tons. These form the outside of the statue. When this was complete, the iron frame-work or skeleton was formed on which the outer copper shell could be fastened. The right

BARTHOLDI'S STATUE OF LIBERTY IN NEW YORK HARBOR.

hand and torch of this remarkable statue were shown at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876. The head was shown at the Paris Exposition in 1879.

On July 4, 1880, the statue was formally delivered to the United States through its representative, the American minister at Paris. Bedloe's Island, in New York Harbor, but lying within the boundaries of New Jersey, was selected by the government as a suitable place for its erection, and money was raised by means of subscriptions, concerts, etc., to build a pedestal for it to rest upon. On Oct. 28, 1886, the statue was unveiled in the presence of distinguished representatives of France and the United States, and was formally dedicated with imposing ceremonies. The statue represents the Goddess of Liberty holding aloft a torch with which she enlightens the world. The height of the statue from the base to the torch is 151 feet 1 inch. From the foundation of the pedestal to the torch it is 305 feet 6 inches. The figure weighs 450,000 pounds, or 225 tons, and contains 100 tons of bronze. Forty persons can stand comfortably in the head, and the torch will hold twelve people.

Bartlett, JOHN, author; born in Plymouth, Mass., June 14, 1820; became a publisher in Cambridge. In 1862–63 he was a volunteer paymaster in the United States navy. He is best known for his *Familiar Quotations; The Shakspeare Index;* and *The Complete Concordance to Shakspeare.*

Bartlett, JOHN RUSSELL, author; born in Providence, R. I., Oct. 23, 1805. He was for six years cashier of the Globe Bank in Providence, and an active member of the Franklin Society for the Cultivation of Science. He was also one of the projectors of the Athenæum in Providence, and for some time corresponding secretary of the New York Historical Society. Mr. Bartlett was associated with Albert Gallatin as a projector and founder of the American Ethnological Society. In 1850 he was appointed by President Taylor a commissioner, under the treaty of peace with Mexico in 1848, to settle the boundary-line between that country and the United States. He was engaged in that service until Jan. 7, 1853, making extensive surveys and explorations, with elaborate scientific observations; but, owing to a failure of Congress to make the necessary appropriations, he did not complete his work. He published a personal narrative of his experience in that region in 1854. In May, 1855, he was chosen secretary of state of Rhode Island, which post he held until 1872, a period of seventeen years. He edited and published the *Records of the Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations,* in 10 volumes; also an *Index to the Acts and Resolves of the General Assembly of Rhode Island from 1758 to 1862.* In 1847 Mr. Bartlett published a little volume on the *Progress of Ethnology;* and in 1848 a *Dictionary of Americanisms,* since revised and enlarged. He also published a *Bibliography of Rhode Island; Literature of the Rebellion; Memoirs of Rhode Island Men; Primeval Man,* and several other works. He died in Providence, R. I., May 28, 1886.

Bartlett, JOSIAH, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Amesbury, Mass., Nov. 21, 1729; educated in a common school and taught the science of medicine by a practitioner in his native town, he began practice in Kingston, N. H., in 1750, and soon became eminent. He was a member of the New Hampshire legislature from 1765 until the breaking out of the War of the Revolution. In 1770 he was appointed by the royal governor lieutenant-colonel of the militia, but on account of his patriotic tendencies he was deprived of the office in 1775. He was a member of the committee of safety, upon whom for a time devolved the whole executive power of the government of the State. A delegate to Congress in 1775–76, he was the first to give his vote for the Declaration of Independence, and its first signer after the President of Congress. He was with Stark in the Bennington campaign (see BENNINGTON, BATTLE OF), in 1777, as agent of the State to provide medicine and other necessaries for the New Hampshire troops. In Congress again in 1778, he was active in committee duties; and in 1779 he was appointed chief-justice of the Common Pleas in his State. In 1782 he was a judge of the Superior Court of New Hampshire, and chief-justice in 1788. Judge Bartlett retired from public life

in 1794, on account of feeble health, having been president of the State from 1790 to 1793, and, under the new constitution, governor in 1793. He was the chief founder and the president of the New Hampshire Medical Society, and received the honorary degree of M.D. from Dartmouth College. He died May 19, 1795.

Bartlett, WILLIAM FRANCIS, military officer; born in Haverhill, Mass., Jan. 6, 1840; was graduated at Harvard in 1862. He entered the volunteer army as captain in the summer of 1861; was engaged in the battle of BALL'S BLUFF (*q. v.*), and lost a leg in the siege of Yorktown in 1862. He was made colonel of a Massachusetts regiment in November, 1862, and took part in the capture of Port Hudson in 1863. In the siege of Petersburg (1864) he commanded a division of the 9th Corps, and at the explosion of the mine there he was made prisoner, but exchanged in September. In 1865 he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He died in Pittsfield, Mass., Dec. 17, 1876.

Barton, CLARA, philanthropist; born in Oxford, Mass., in 1830; was educated in Clinton, N. Y. Her early life was devoted to teaching. In 1854 she became a clerk in the Patent Office in Washington, resigning in 1861, and undertaking the

CLARA BARTON.

nursing of sick and wounded soldiers of the army. In 1864 General Butler made her head nurse of the hospitals in the Army of the James. Later she was given charge by President Lincoln of the search organized to find missing Union soldiers, and in 1865 went to Andersonville to mark the graves of Northern soldiers who had died there. When the Franco-Prussian War broke out (1870), she assisted in preparing military hospitals, and also aided the Red Cross Society. In 1871, after the siege of Strasburg, she superintended, by request of the authorities, the distribution of work to the poor, and in 1872 performed a similar work in Paris. For her services she was decorated with the Golden Cross of Baden and the Iron Cross of Germany. In 1881, when the American Red Cross Society was formed, she was made its president, and as such in 1884 directed the measures to aid the sufferers by the Mississippi and Ohio floods. In 1883 she was made the superintendent, steward, and treasurer of the Reformatory Prison for Women, at Sherborn, Mass., and in the same year was special commissioner of foreign exhibits at the New Orleans Exposition. In 1884 she was a delegate of the United States to the Red Cross Conference, and also to the International Peace Conference, both held in Geneva, Switzerland. In 1889 she directed the movements for the relief of the sufferers by the flood at Johnstown, Pa., and in 1896 went to Armenia and personally managed the relief measures. Prior to the war with Spain she carried supplies to the reconcentrados of Cuba, at the request of President McKinley, and was also active during the war in army relief work. In 1900, after the Galveston disaster, she directed the movement for the relief of the sufferers, till her health failed. She is author of *History of the Red Cross;* and *History of the Red Cross in Peace and War.*

Barton, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Warren, R. I., May 26, 1748. Holding the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the Rhode Island militia, he, with a small party, crossed Narraganset Bay in the night (July 10, 1777) and seized and carried away the British General Prescott (see PRESCOTT, RICHARD). For this service Congress gave him a sword and a commission of colonel in the Continental army. He was wounded at Bristol Ferry in August, 1778, and was disabled from

further service in the war. He was a member of the Rhode Island convention

WILLIAM BARTON.

which finally adopted the national Constitution. He died in Providence, R. I., Oct. 22, 1831.

Bartram, WILLIAM, naturalist; born in Kingsessing, Pa., Feb. 9, 1739. He engaged in business in North Carolina in 1761, and became a devoted student of natural history. Son of John Bartram, a distinguished botanist, and the founder of the first botanical garden in the United States, William accompanied his father, when the latter was seventy years of age, in a botanical excursion and exploration of east Florida, and resided some time on the banks of the St. John River, returning home in 1771. He was employed by Dr. Fothergill, of London, in 1773–78, in botanical explorations and collections in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina. Mr. Bartram was a member of the American Philosophical Society and other scientific associations in the United States and Europe. In 1790 he published an account of his travels in the Gulf region, in which he gave an account of the Creek, Choctaw, and Cherokee Indians. Mr. Bartram made the most complete table of American ornithology previous to the work of Wilson, and to him we are indebted for a knowledge of many curious and beautiful plants peculiar to North America. He died in Kingsessing, Pa., July 22, 1823.

Bassett, JOHN SPENCER, educator; born in Tarboro, N. C., Sept. 10, 1867; graduated at Trinity College, N. C., in 1888, and was Professor of History in Trinity College in 1900. He is author of *Constitutional Beginnings of North Carolina; Slavery and Servitude in Colony of North Carolina; Anti-Slavery Leaders of North Carolina; Slavery in the State of North Carolina; The War of the Regulation,* etc.

Bastidas, RODRIGUEZ DE, explorer; born about 1460. With Juan de la Cosa, he sailed towards the Western Continent with two ships in 1502, and discovered the coast of South America from Cape de Vela to the Gulf of Darien. Ojeda, with Americus Vespucius, went in the same course soon afterwards, ignorant of this expedition of Bastidas, touched at the same places, and proceeded to Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo. He founded the city of St. Martha, in New Grenada; was wounded in an uprising of his people; and died soon afterwards in Santo Domingo, whither he had fled.

Batane, or **Bashi, Islands,** a group of islands directly north of the Philippine Archipelago, midway between the Bashi and Balintang channels and a little to the southeast of the island of Formosa. They have an estimated area of 125 square miles and a population of about 9,500. The principal islands in the group are Mabudis, Ibayat, Batan, Saptan, and Balintang, and the principal towns are Santo Domingo de Basco, San Bartolome de Calayan, San Carlos de Marigatao, San Jose de Ibana, Santa Maria de Mayan, and San Vincente de Saptan. In March, 1900, the United States authorities established a government over these islands, and the neighboring Calayan Islands, under the direction of Teofilo Costillejo, a Filipino, who had aided the American authorities in their operations on Luzon.

Batangas, a province of Luzon, Philippine Islands, bordering on San Bernardino Strait, and north of the island of Mindoro; also the name of its capital city. The province is naturally one of the richest sugar-growing districts in the Philippines, and has also a large production of cocoanut oil. Prior to the war between the United States and Spain, in 1898, the

city was the seat of large commerce, and had a population of over 35,000. The region gives promise of large economic returns on the application of modern methods of cultivation.

Batchelder, RICHARD N., military officer; born in Lake Village, N. H., July 27, 1832; entered the volunteer army in 1861; served through the Civil War, and was awarded a Congressional medal of honor for distinguished gallantry in action; entered the regular army at the close of the war; became brigadier-general in 1890, and was retired in 1896. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 4, 1901.

Bates, EDWARD, statesman; born in Belmont, Va., Sept. 4, 1793; served in the Virginia militia in 1813; removed to Missouri in 1814; and began practising law in 1816. He was a prominent anti-slavery man, and during the National Republican Convention of 1860 he received 48 votes on the first ballot for President. Mr. Lincoln after his election appointed Mr. Bates Attorney-General. He resigned in 1864, and returned to his home in St. Louis, where he died, March 25, 1869.

Bates, JOHN COALTER, military officer; born in St. Charles county, Mo., Aug. 26, 1842; educated at Washington University (St. Louis). He entered the army in 1861, and served on the staff of Gen. George G. Meade from the battle of Gettysburg to the close of the war. In 1863–82 he held the rank of captain; in 1882–86 that of lieutenant-colonel; in 1886–92 that of colonel. He was president of the board which devised the present drill and firing regulations, and a member of the board which adopted the Krag-Jorgensen rifle. At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War he was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, and for the Santiago campaign was promoted major-general. In 1899 he was appointed military governor of Cienfuegos, Cuba. On the reorganization of the regular army in February, 1901, he was appointed one of the new brigadier-generals.

Bates, JOSHUA, financier; born in Weymouth, Mass., in 1788; went to England as the agent of William Gray & Son, Boston, and was thrown into intimate relations with the Hopes, Barings, and other great commercial firms. In 1826 he entered into partnership with John Baring, and afterwards became the senior partner of the firm of Baring Brothers & Co. In 1854 he was appointed umpire between the British and American commissioners in the adjustment of claims between citizens of Great Britain and the United States growing out of the War of 1812. In 1852 Mr. Bates offered $50,000 to the city of Boston for the establishment of a free public library, and afterwards gave the library some 30,000 volumes. He died in London, England, Sept. 24, 1864.

Bates, SAMUEL PENNIMAN, historian; born in Meriden, Mass., Jan. 29, 1827; was State historian of Pennsylvania in 1866–73; and published *Lives of the Governors of Pennsylvania,* and several works on the Civil War.

Baton Rouge, BATTLE AT. See PORT HUDSON; WILLIAMS, THOMAS.

Battle, KEMP PLUMMER, educator; born in Franklin county, N. C., Dec. 19, 1831; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1849; member of the Confederate Convention of that State in 1861; State treasurer in 1866–68; was president of the University of North Carolina in 1876–91; then resigned to become Professor of History in the same institution. He is author of *History of the Supreme Court of North Carolina; History of Raleigh, North Carolina; Trials and Judicial Proceedings of the New Testament; Life of General Jethro Sumner,* etc.

Battle Above the Clouds. See LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN, BATTLE OF.

Battle Hymn of the Republic. See HOWE, JULIA WARD.

Battle of the Kegs. See HOPKINSON, FRANCIS.

Battles. The principal battles in which the people of the United States have been engaged, as colonists and as a nation, are as follows:

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Great Meadows	May	28,	1754
Fort Necessity	July	4,	"
Fort Beau Séjour	June	16,	1755
Fort Gaspereaux	June	17,	"
Monongahela	July	9,	"
Bloody Pond (near Lake George)	Sept.	8,	"
Head of Lake George	Sept.	8,	"
Oswego	Aug.	14,	1756
Fort William Henry	July	6,	1757
Near Ticonderoga	July	6,	1758
Ticonderoga	July	8,	"
Louisburg	July	26,	"

Fort Frontenac ..... Aug. 27, 1758
Alleghany Mountains ..... Sept. 21, "
Fort Niagara ..... July 25, 1759
Montmorenci ..... July 31, "
Plains of Abraham ..... Sept. 13, "
Sillery ..... April 28, 1760

REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

Lexington ..... April 19, 1775
Bunker (Breed's) Hill ..... June 17, "
Near Montreal (Ethan Allen captured) ..... Sept. 25, "
St. John's (Siege and Capture of) ..... Oct. and Nov. "
Great Bridge ..... Dec. 9, "
Quebec ..... Dec. 31, "
Moore's Creek Bridge ..... Feb. 27, 1776
Boston (Evacuation of) ..... Mar. 17, "
Cedar Rapids ..... May 9, "
Three Rivers ..... June 8, "
Fort Sullivan (Charleston Harbor) ..... June 28, "
Long Island ..... Aug. 27, "
Harlem Plains ..... Sept. 16, "
White Plains ..... Oct. 28, "
Fort Washington ..... Nov. 16, "
Trenton ..... Dec. 26, "
Princeton ..... Jan. 3, 1777
Hubbardton ..... July 7, "
Oriskany ..... Aug. 6, "
Bennington ..... Aug. 16, "
Brandywine ..... Sept. 11, "
Bemis's Heights (first), Sept. 19; (second) ..... Oct. 7, "
Paoli ..... Sept. 20, "
Germantown ..... Oct. 4, "
Forts Clinton and Montgomery. Oct. 6, "
Fort Mercer ..... Oct. 22, "
Fort Mifflin ..... Nov. 16, "
Monmouth ..... June 28, 1778
Wyoming ..... July 4, "
Quaker Hill (R. I.) ..... Aug. 29, "
Savannah ..... Dec. 29, "
Kettle Creek ..... Feb. 14, 1779
Brier Creek ..... Mar. 3, "
Stono Ferry ..... June 20, "
Stony Point ..... July 16, "
Paulus's Hook ..... Aug. 19, "
Chemung (near Elmira, N. Y.). Aug. 29, "
Savannah ..... Oct. 9, "
Charleston (Siege and Surrender of) ..... May 12, 1780
Springfield (N. J.) ..... June 23, "
Rocky Mount (N. C.) ..... July 30, "
Hanging Rock (N. C.) ..... Aug. 6, "
Sander's Creek (near Camden, S. C.) ..... Aug. 16, "
King's Mountain (S. C.) ..... Oct. 7, "
Fish Dam Ford ..... Nov. 18, "
Blackstocks ..... Nov. 20, "
Cowpens ..... Jan. 17, 1781
Guilford ..... Mar. 15, "
Hobkirk's Hill ..... April 25, "
Ninety-six (Siege of) .... May and June "
Augusta (Siege of) ..... May and June "
Jamestown ..... July 9, "
Eutaw Springs ..... Sept. 8, "
Yorktown (Siege of) .... Sept. and Oct. "

NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS.

Hampton, Va. (British fleet repulsed) ..... Oct. 24, 1775
Fort Sullivan, Charleston Harbor (British fleet repulsed). June 28, 1776
Fort Stony Point, on the Hudson (captured by British fleet) ..... May 31, 1779
Verplanck's Point, on the Hudson (captured by British fleet) ..... June 1, "
British fleet and American flotilla of thirty-seven vessels on Penobscot River (latter destroyed) ..... Aug. 13, "
Bon Homme Richard and the *Alliance* against the *Serapis* (off coast of England) ..... Sept. 23 "
American fleet captured the *Scarborough* (off coast of England) ..... Sept. 23 "
French fleet attacked Savannah (forced by the British to withdraw) ..... Oct. 9, "

WAR WITH THE INDIANS.

Miami River ..... Oct. 19 and 22, 1790
St. Clair's Defeat ..... Nov. 4, 1791
Fort St. Clair ..... Nov. 6, 1792
Near Fort St. Clair ..... Oct. 17, 1793
Fort Recovery ..... June 30, 1794
Maumee Rapids (Fallen Timber) ..... Aug. 20, "
Tippecanoe ..... Nov. 7, 1811

WAR OF 1812-15.

Fort Mackinaw ..... July 17, 1812
Brownstown ..... Aug. 4, "
Maguaga ..... Aug. 9, "
Chicago (Massacre at) ..... Aug. 16, "
Detroit (Surrendered) ..... Aug. 16, "
Fort Harrison ..... Sept. 4 and 5, "
Fort Madison ..... Sept. 4-6, "
Gananoqui ..... Sept. 21, "
Queenstown Heights ..... Oct. 13, "
St. Regis ..... Oct. 23, "
Fort Niagara ..... Nov. 21, "
Black Rock ..... Nov. 28, "
French Town (River Raisin). Jan. 18-22, 1813
Elizabethtown (Canada) ..... Feb. 7, "
Ogdensburg ..... Feb. 22, "
York (Toronto) ..... April 27, "
Fort Meigs ..... May 5, "
Fort George ..... May 27, "
Sackett's Harbor ..... May 29, "
Stony Creek ..... June 6, "
Hampton (Defence of) ..... June 13, "
Craney Island ..... June 22, "
Beaver Dams ..... June 23, "
Near Fort George ..... July 8, "
Black Rock ..... July 11, "
Fort George (Defence of Outworks) ..... July 17, "
Fort Stephenson ..... Aug. 2, "
Stonington (Bombardment of) Aug. 9-11, "
Fort Mims ..... Aug. 30, "
Thames ..... Oct. 5 "
French Creek ..... Nov. 1 and 2, "
Tallasehatche ..... Nov. 3, "
Talladega ..... Nov. 9, "
Chrysler's Field ..... Nov. 11, "
Hillabee Town ..... Nov. 18, "
Auttose ..... Nov. 29, "

Fort Niagara ..... Dec. 19, 1813
Econochaca ..... Dec. 23, "
Black Rock ..... Dec. 30, "
Emucfau (Ala.) ..... Jan. 22, 1814
Enotochopco (Ala.) ..... Jan. 24, "
Camp Defiance ..... Jan. 27, "
Longwoods ..... Mar. 4, "
Horseshoe Bend ..... Mar. 27, "
La Colle Mills ..... Mar. 30, "
Fort Oswego ..... May 4 and 5, "
Sandy Creek ..... May 30, "
Odell Town ..... June 28, "
Fort Erie ..... July 3, "
Chippewa ..... July 5, "
Champlain ..... July 18 and 19, "
Lundy's Lane (Niagara Falls) . July 25, "
Fort Mackinack (Mackinaw) . . Aug. 4, "
Fort Erie ..... Aug. 13-15, "
Bladensburg ..... Aug. 24, "
Plattsburg ..... Sept. 11, "
North Point ..... Sept. 12, "
Fort McHenry (Bombardment of) ..... Sept. 13, "
Fort Bower ..... Sept. 15, "
Fort Erie (Sortie from) .... Sept. 17, "
Chippewa ..... Oct. 15, "
Lyon's Creek ..... Oct. 19, "
Pensacola ..... Nov. 7, "
Villeré's Plantation (New Orleans) ..... Dec. 23, "
Rodriguez's Canal (New Orleans) ..... Jan. 1, 1815
New Orleans ..... Jan. 8, "
Fort St. Philip ..... Jan. 9, "
Point Petre (Ga.) ..... Jan. 13, "

NAVAL ENGAGEMENTS.

Chesapeake and *Leopard* (impressment, former defeated) ..... June 22, 1807
President and *Little Belt* (latter defeated) ..... May 16, 1811
President and *Belvidera* (former escaped) ..... June 23, 1812
Essex and *Alert* (latter defeated) ..... Aug. 13, "
Constitution and *Guerrière* (latter defeated) ..... Aug. 19, "
Wasp and *Frolic* (latter defeated) ..... Oct. 18, "
Wasp and *Poictiers* (former surrendered) ..... Oct. 18, "
United States and *Macedonian* (latter defeated) ..... Oct. 25, "
Constitution and *Java* (latter defeated) ..... Dec. 29, "
Chesapeake and *Shannon* (former defeated) ..... June 1, 1813
Enterprise and *Boxer* (latter defeated) ..... Sept. 5, "
Argus and *Pelican* (former defeated) ..... Aug. 14, "
Hornet and *Peacock* (latter defeated) ..... Aug. 24, "
American fleet of nine vessels and British fleet of six vessels on Lake Erie (latter defeated) ..... Sept. 10, "
Essex and the *Phoebe* and *Cherub* (former surrendered) ..... Mar. 28, 1814
Wasp and *Reindeer* (latter defeated) ..... June 28, 1814
Wasp and *Avon* (latter defeated) ..... Sept. 1, "
American fleet of sixteen vessels and the British fleet on Lake Champlain (latter defeated) ..... Sept. 11, "
President and the *Endymion*, *Majestic*, and two other British ships (former defeated, ... Sept. 16, "
Hornet and *Penguin* (latter defeated) ..... Jan. 22, 1815

BLACK HAWK WAR. (See BLACK HAWK).
May to August, 1832.

SEMINOLE WAR—1835-42.

Micanopy ..... June 9, 1836
Fort Drane ..... Aug. 21, "
Wahoo Swamp .... Nov. 17, 18, and 21, "
Okeechobee Lake ..... Dec. 25, 1837
Carloosahatchee ..... July 23, 1839
Fort King ..... April 28, 1840
Near Fort Brooke ..... Mar. 2, 1841
Big Hammock ..... April 19, 1842

WAR AGAINST MEXICO.

Fort Brown ..... May 3, 1846
Palo Alto ..... May 8, "
Resaca de la Palma ..... May 9, "
Sonoma and Sonoma Pass ... June 15, "
Monterey ..... Sept. 21-23, "
Braceta ..... Dec. 25, "
San Gabriel ..... Jan. 8, 1847
The Mesa ..... Jan. 9, "
Encarnacion ..... Jan. 23, "
Buena Vista ..... Feb. 22 and 23, "
Chihuahua ..... Feb. 28, "
Vera Cruz (Surrendered) ..... Mar. 20, "
Alvarado ..... April 2, "
Cerro Gordo ..... April 18, "
Contreras ..... Aug. 20, "
Churubusco ..... Aug. 20, "
El Molino del Rey ..... Sept. 8, "
Chapultepec ..... Sept. 12-14, "
Puebla ..... Sept. and Oct., "
Huamantla ..... Oct. 9, "
Atlixco ..... Oct. 18, "

CIVIL WAR.

Fort Sumter (Evacuated) .... April 14, 1861
Big Bethel (Va.) ..... June 10, "
Booneville (Mo.) ..... June 17, "
Carthage (Mo.) ..... July 6, "
Rich Mountain (Va.) ..... July 10, "
Bull Run (Va.) (first) ..... July 21, "
Wilson's Creek (Mo.) ..... Aug. 10, "
Hatteras Forts Captured .... Aug. 26-30, "
Carnifex Ferry (Va.) ..... Sept. 10, "
Lexington (Mo.) ..... Sept. 20, "
Santa Rosa Island ..... Oct. 9, "
Ball's Bluff (Va.) ..... Oct. 21, "
Port Royal Expedition (S. C.) Oct. to Nov., "
Belmont (Mo.) ..... Nov. 7, "
Middle Creek (Ky.) ..... Jan. 10, 1862
Fort Henry (Tenn.) ..... Feb. 6, "
Roanoke Island (N. C.) . . Feb. 7 and 8, "
Fort Donelson ..... Feb. 16, "
Valvend (New Mexico) ..... Feb. 21, "

Pea Ridge (Ark.).....Mar. 7 and 8, 1862
Hampton Roads (*Monitor* and *Merrimac*).....Mar. 9, "
Shiloh (Tenn.).....April 6 and 7, "
Island Number Ten (Surrendered).....April 7, "
Forts Jackson and St. Philip April 18-27, "
New Orleans (Captured). April 25 to May 1, "
Yorktown (Siege of)....April and May, "
Williamsburg.....May 5, "
Winchester.....May 25, "
Hanover Court-House.....May 27, "
Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks May 31 and June 1, "
Memphis (Tenn.).....June 6, "
Cross Keys and Port Republic.....June 8 and 9, "
Seven Days before Richmond.....June and July, "
Baton Rouge (La.).....Aug. 5, "
Cedar Mountain (Va.).....Aug. 9, "
Bull Run (second).....Aug. 30, "
South Mountain (Md.).....Sept. 14, "
Harper's Ferry (10,000 Nationals surrendered).....Sept. 15, "
Antietam (Md.).....Sept. 17, "
Iuka (Miss.).....Sept. 19 and 20, "
Corinth (Miss.).....Oct. 3, "
Perryville (Ky.).....Oct. 8, "
Prairie Grove (Ark.).....Dec. 7, "
Fredericksburg (Va.).....Dec. 13, "
Holly Springs (Miss.).....Dec. 20, "
Chickasaw Bayou (Miss.)...Dec. 27-29, "
Stone River (Murfreesboro, Tenn.).....Dec. 31, " and Jan. 3, 1863
Arkansas Post (Ark.).....Jan. 11, "
Grierson's Raid.....April 11 to May 5, "
Port Gibson (Miss.).....May 1, "
Chancellorsville (Va.).....May 1-4, "
Raymond (Miss.).....May 12, "
Jackson (Miss.).....May 14, "
Champion Hill (Miss).....May 16, "
Big Black River (Miss.).....May 17, "
Vicksburg (Miss.).....May 19-22, "
Port Hudson (La.).....May 27, "
Hanover Junction (Pa.).....June 30, "
Gettysburg (Pa.).....July 1-3, "
Vicksburg (Surrendered).....July 4, "
Helena (Ark.).....July 4, "
Port Hudson (Surrendered)...July 9, "
Jackson (Miss.).....July 16, "
Fort Wagner (S. C.).....July 10-18, "
Morgan's Great Raid (Ind. and O.).....June 24 to July 26, "
Chickamauga.....Sept. 19 and 20, "
Campbell's Station (Tenn.)...Nov. 16, "
Knoxville (Tenn.; Besieged) Nov. 17 to Dec. 4, "
Lookout Mountain (Tenn.)....Nov. 24, "
Missionary Ridge (Tenn.).....Nov. 25, "
Olustee (Fla.).....Feb. 20, 1864
Sabine Cross Roads (La.).....April 8, "
Pleasant Hill (La.).....April 9, "
Fort Pillow (Tenn.; Massacre at).....April 12, "
Wilderness (Va.).....May 5 and 6, "
Spottsylvania Court - House (Va.).....May 7-12, "
Resaca (Ga.).....May 14 and 15, 1864
Bermuda Hundred.....May 10, "
New Hope Church (Ga.).....May 25, "
Cold Harbor (Va.).....June 1-3, "
Petersburg (Va.; Smith's Attack).....June 16, "
Weldon Road (Va.)....June 21 and 22, "
Kenesaw (Ga.).....June 27, "
Peach-tree Creek (Ga.).....July 20, "
Decatur (Ga.).....July 22, "
Atlanta (Ga.).....July 28, "
Petersburg (Va.; Mine Explosion).....July 30, "
Mobile Bay.....Aug. 5, "
Jonesboro (Ga.)..Aug. 31 and Sept. 1, "
Atlanta (Ga.; Captured).....Sept. 2, "
Winchester (Va.).....Sept. 19, "
Fisher's Hill (Va.).....Sept. 22, "
Allatoona Pass (Ga.).....Oct. 6, "
Hatcher's Run (Va.).....Oct. 27, "
Franklin (Tenn.).....Nov. 30, "
Fort McAllister (Ga.).....Dec. 14, "
Nashville (Tenn.).....Dec. 15 and 16, "
Fort Fisher (N. C.; First Attack on).....Dec. 24 and 25, "
Fort Fisher (N. C.; Capture of).....Jan. 15, 1865
Hatcher's Run (Va.).....Feb. 5, "
Averasboro (N. C.).....Mar. 16, "
Bentonville (N. C.).....Mar. 18, "
Five Forks (Va.)..Mar. 31 and April 1, "
Petersburg (Carried by Assault).....April 2, "
Appomattox Court - House (near).....April 9, "
Mobile (Capture of).....April 8-12, "

WAR WITH SPAIN.

Destruction of Spanish fleet in Manila Bay.....May 1, 1898
Bombardment of San Juan, Porto Rico.....May 12, "
Bombardments of forts, Santiago de Cuba.....May 31, "
Daiquirl, Cuba.....June 21-22, "
Juragua, Cuba (Capture).....June 24, "
Las Guasimas, Cuba.....June 24, "
El Caney, Cuba.....July 1, "
San Juan Hill, Cuba.....July 2, "
Destruction of Spanish fleet off Santiago.....July 3, "
Santiago (Military and Naval Bombardment).....July 10-17, "
Nipe Harbor, Cuba.....July 21, "
Guanica, Porto Rico.....July 25, "
Ponce, Porto Rico.....July 28, "
Malate, Philippine Islands....July 31, "
Manila (Occupied).....Aug. 13, "
Filipinos begin war on Americans.....Feb. 4, 1899
Capture of Aguinaldo ends insurrection.....Mar. 23, 1901

There has been, from colonial times, desultory warfare quite frequently between the English-American colonists and the Indian tribes. The most formidable of these encounters were the Pequod War, the Esopus War, King Philip's War, Pontiac's

War, the Creek and Seminole War, and wars with the Sioux. There should also be included in the list of wars of the United States the long series of operations against the Filipino insurgents following the ratification of peace in 1899. Details of the most important of all of the above events will be found under their respective titles.

Battle-ships, the highest and heaviest class of war vessels, designed for sea-fighting in line of battle, and provided with the most invulnerable armor and the heaviest guns, differing in this respect from the armored and unarmored class of cruisers, in which the qualities of protection and armament do not so largely preponderate. In a fleet of modern war-ships the battle-ship is the unit of strength and is expected to give and receive the hardest blows.

U. S. BATTLE SHIP KEARSARGE.

In the reconstruction of the United States navy, large attention has been given to this class of vessels, and the results of the remarkable triumph off Santiago de Cuba have been used as a justification for giving the navy the most thorough possible equipment in this line of fighting ships.

At the beginning of 1901 the following battle-ships were in service: *Alabama, Kearsarge, Kentucky, Iowa, Indiana, Massachusetts, Oregon,* and *Texas,* the first seven being rated as first-class battle-ships, the last as second-class. At the same period there were under construction, or authorized to be constructed, the following vessels, all of the first class: *Illinois, Wisconsin, Maine, Missouri, Ohio, Georgia, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia,* and *Rhode Island.* During the summer of 1899 the *Kearsarge* and *Kentucky* were put in commission, the former being made the flag-ship of the new European squadron, and the latter being sent to impress the Sultan of Turkey with the desirability of paying some American claims.

What was denominated by the Secretary of the Navy the "greatest industrial event this or any other country had ever seen" occurred in Washington, Dec. 7, 1900, when bids were opened for the construction of eleven new armored fighting ships, to cost an aggregate of about $50,000,000. The vessels authorized were sheathed battle-ships, for which Congress limited the cost to $4,250,000 each; unsheathed battle-ships, limit of cost, $4,000,000 each; and armored cruisers, limit of cost, $3,600,000. See NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES.

Baxter, JAMES PHINNEY, author; born in Gorham, Me., March 23, 1831; has been mayor of Portland, Me., several

times; and is the author of *British Invasion from the North; Sir Ferdinando Gorges and His Province of Maine,* etc.

Bayamon, a province on the north coast of Porto Rico; bounded on the east by that of Humacao, on the south by those of Ponce and Guayama, and on the west by that of Arecibo (*q. v.*). The chief city and seaport is San Juan (*q. v.*), the fortifications of which were several times bombarded by a portion of the fleet under Admiral Sampson in 1898. The city was also the objective point of the military expedition under Gen. N. A. Miles (*q. v.*), which was stopped on its triumphal march by the signing of the protocol of peace. The formal transfer of the island to the United States also took place in this city.

Bayard, George Dashiell, military officer; born in Seneca Falls, N. Y., Dec. 18, 1835; was graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered the cavalry corps. Early in April, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteer cavalry, and was attached to the Pennsylvania Reserves. He participated in the battles fought by that body; served under McDowell and Pope in Virginia; and, after the battle of Antietam Creek, commanded a cavalry brigade. He was chief of cavalry of the 3d Army Corps, and was engaged in the battles of Cedar Mountain, Manassas, and in the defence of Washington, D. C. In the battle of Fredericksburg, where he fell, Dec. 14, 1862, he was attached to Franklin's corps.

Bayard, James Ashton, statesman; born in Philadelphia, July 28, 1767; of Huguenot descent; was graduated at Princeton in 1784; studied law under Gen. Joseph Reed; was admitted to the bar in 1787, and, settling in Delaware, soon acquired a high reputation as a lawyer. Mr. Bayard was a member of Congress from 1797 to 1803, and a conspicuous leader of the Federal party. In 1804 he was elected to the United States Senate, in which he distinguished himself in conducting the impeachment of Senator Blount. He was chiefly instrumental in securing the election of Jefferson over Burr in 1800; and made, in the House of Representatives, in 1802, a powerful defence of the existing judiciary system, which was soon overthrown. He was in the Senate when war was declared against Great Britain in 1812. In May, 1813, he left the United States on a mission to St. Petersburg, to treat for peace with Great

JAMES ASHTON BAYARD.

Britain under Russian mediation. The mission was fruitless. In January, 1814, he went to Holland, and thence to England. At Ghent, during that year, he, with J. Q. Adams, Clay, Gallatin, and Russell, negotiated a treaty of peace with England. He was preparing to go to England as a commissioner under the treaty, when an alarming illness seized him, and he returned home early in 1815. He died soon after his arrival, Aug. 6.

Bayard, Nicholas, colonial executive; born in Alphen, Holland, in 1644. His mother was a sister of Governor Stuyvesant, the last Dutch governor of New Netherland, whom she accompanied to America in 1647, with her three sons and a daughter. The old Bayard mansion in New York City, on the Bowery, was converted into a pleasure garden in 1798. The Astor Library is built on a part of the estate. Under the second English *régime,* in 1685, Bayard was mayor of New York, and a member of Governor Dongan's council. In 1698 Col. Bayard went to England to clear himself of the

imputation of complicity in the piracy of Captain Kidd, having been accused by the Leisler faction of both piracy and a scheme to introduce slavery. He was tried before Chief-Justice Atwood and sentenced to death. The proceedings, however, were annulled by an order-in-council, and he was reinstated in his property and honors. He died in New York City, in 1707.

Bayard, THOMAS FRANCIS, diplomatist; born in Wilmington, Del., Oct. 29, 1828; grandson of James A. Bayard; was admitted to the bar at Wilmington in 1851, and served as United States District Attorney. From 1869 to 1885 he was United States Senator from Delaware, and foremost among the leaders of the Democratic side. He was a member of the Electoral Commission in 1877, and was for a while president *pro tem.* of the Senate. In 1880 and 1884 Senator Bayard's prominence in the party brought his name before the National Democratic Convention, but he failed of securing the prize, though receiving many votes. President Cleveland called him in 1885 to the office of Secretary of State, where he remained until 1889, and in President Cleveland's second administration he was first minister and then AMBASSADOR (*q. v.*) to Great Britain. He died in Dedham, Mass., Sept. 28, 1898.

Baylis's Creek, BATTLE AT. Gen. W. S. Hancock proceeded to attack the Confederates in front of Deep Bottom on the James River, Aug. 12, 1864. His whole force was placed on transports at City Point, and its destination reported to be Washington. This was to deceive the Confederates. That night it went up the James River; but so tardy was the debarkation that the intended surprise of the Confederates was not effected. Hancock pushed some of his troops by Malvern Hill to flank the Confederates' defence behind Baylis's Creek, while 10,000 men were sent, under Gen. F. C. Barlow, to assail their flank and rear. There were other dispositions for attack; but the delay had allowed Lee to send reinforcements, for the movement seemed to threaten Richmond. On the morning of the 16th, General Birney, with General Terry's division, attacked and carried the Confederate lines, and captured 300 men. The Confederates soon rallied and drove him back. Another part of the attacking force was driven back, and the attempt failed.

Baylor, GEORGE, military officer; born in Newmarket, Va., Jan. 12, 1752. Soon after Washington's arrival at Cambridge in 1778, he appointed (Aug. 15) young Baylor as his aide. He was a participant in the battle at Trenton, and carried the news of the victory to Congress, when that body presented him with a horse caparisoned for service, and made him colonel of dragoons (Jan. 8, 1777). On the night of Sept. 27, 1778, his troop of horse, lying in barns, unarmed, near old Tappan, were surprised by the British, who fell suddenly upon the sleeping troopers. The latter, without arms and powerless, asked for quarter. General Grey had given special orders not to grant quarter, and out of 104 prisoners sixty-seven were killed or wounded. Baylor was wounded and made prisoner. He died in Bridgetown, Barbadoes, in March, 1784.

Bayonne Decree. See EMBARGO.

Bayou Teche Expedition. See RED RIVER EXPEDITION.

Bay State, the popular name of Massachusetts, the colonial corporate title of which was "The Massachusetts Bay." This name it bore until the adoption of the national Constitution in 1788.

Beach, ALFRED ELY, inventor; born in Springfield, Mass., in 1826; was educated at Monson Academy, Mass., and under his father (Moses, an early proprietor of the New York *Sun*) acquired a practical knowledge of newspaper work. In 1846 (with Orson D. Munn) he established the *Scientific American*, and for nearly fifty years was its editor. In 1852 he perfected a typewriting machine which was awarded a gold medal by the American Institute. Later he invented the system of underground pneumatic tubes, through which letters were carried from street lamp-posts to the central post-office. In 1867 he placed on exhibition in the American Institute the working model of a portion of an elevated railway, which met with so much favor that he planned a similar system of underground railways for New York. In 1869, under the authority of the legislature, he began the construction of a railway under Broadway

between Murray and Warren streets, the excavation of the tunnel being made by a hydraulic shield of his own invention. This shield was subsequently used in boring several well-known tunnels in the United States, Canada, and Europe. He died in New York City, Jan. 1, 1896.

Beakman, DANIEL FREDERICK, soldier; born in New Jersey about 1760; enlisted in 1778, and served throughout the Revolutionary War; was the last surviving pensioner of that war. In 1867 Congress granted him a pension of $500 for life. He died in Sandusky, N. Y., April 5, 1869.

Beall, JOHN YOUNG, naval officer; born in Virginia, Jan. 1, 1835; received a commission in the Confederate navy, and on Sept. 19, 1864, he, in company with two others, in the dress of civilians, captured the Lake Erie steamer *Philo Parsons.* Subsequently they captured another steamer, *Island Queen,* and also attempted to wreck a railroad train near Buffalo on the night of his arrest, Dec. 16, 1864. He was tried by court martial, condemned, and hanged on Governor's Island, New York Harbor, Feb. 24, 1865.

Beardslee, LESTER ANTHONY, naval officer; born in Little Falls, N. Y., Feb. 1, 1836; was graduated at the Naval Academy in 1856; brought the Confederate steam-sloop *Florida,* captured off Bahia, Brazil, to the United States as prize master in 1864; and while in command of the *Jamestown* in 1879, discovered, surveyed, and named Glacier Bay, Alaska; promoted rear-admiral in 1895. He died in Augusta, Ga., Nov. 10, 1903.

Bear Flag War. See FRÉMONT, JOHN C.

Beatty, JOHN, physician; born in Bucks county, Pa., Dec. 19, 1749; was graduated at Princeton in 1769; studied medicine; became a colonel in the Pennsylvania line; and in 1778–80 he was commissary-general of prisoners. He was a delegate in the Congress of the Confederation, 1783–85, and of the national Congress, 1793–95. He was secretary of state for New Jersey for ten years—1795–1805. He died at Trenton, N. J., April 30, 1826.

Beaufort, S. C. See PORT ROYAL SOUND.

Beauharnais, CHARLES, MARQUIS DE, military officer and a natural son of Louis XIV.; born about 1670; was governor of New France (Canada) from 1726 to 1746, and held the rank of commodore in the French navy, and lieutenant-general of the naval army. On the breaking out of war with England (1745), he built the fortress of Crown Point, which was afterwards enlarged and strengthened by Amherst. He died June 12, 1749.

Beaumarchais, PIERRE AUGUSTIN CARON DE, author; born in Paris, Jan. 24, 1732; the son of a watch-maker. In 1761 he purchased a commission as secretary to the King, a sinecure which conferred noble rank on its possessor, and the name of Beaumarchais, which he had assumed, was legally confirmed. Entering into mercantile speculations, he soon acquired a large fortune. He was the author of the famous play, the *Barber of Seville.* In September, 1775, he submitted a memorial to the French monarch, in which he insisted upon the necessity of the French government's secretly aiding the English-American colonies; and as agent of his government he passed some time in England, where he became acquainted with Arthur Lee, which acquaintance led to diplomatic and commercial relations with the Continental Congress. He conducted the business of supplying the Americans with munitions of war with great ability, and afterwards became involved in a lawsuit with them. In 1784 he produced his *Marriage of Figaro,* which was violently opposed by the Court. His political tendencies were republican, and he sympathized with the French Revolutionists, but did not enter with his usual enthusiasm into their measures. Suspected by the Jacobins, he was compelled to leave the country, and his property was confiscated. He was finally permitted to return to France, but could not recover his wealth. Beaumarchais lived in comparative poverty until May 18, 1799, when he was found dead in his bed, having died of apoplexy. A suit which he had commenced against the United States for payment for supplies furnished to the Continental Congress, between 1776 and 1779, under the mercantile firm name of Roderique Hortales & Co., continued about fifty years, and resulted in 1835 in the payment to his heirs by the United States of the sum of about $200,000.

Beaumont, WILLIAM, physician; born in Lebanon, Conn., in 1796. In 1812 he

was made assistant surgeon in the United States army, and served until 1837. While stationed at Michilimackinac (Mackinaw) in 1822, he treated Alexis St. Martin, a Canadian, who had a gunshot wound in his side; the wound healed without closing up, exposing to view the operations of the stomach in its digestive functions. Dr. Beaumont made careful experiments with this man, for several years, upon the process of digestion, and published the result of his researches. St. Martin lived for more than fifty years after the accident. The orifice exposing the stomach never closed. Dr. Beaumont died in St. Louis, Mo., April 25, 1853.

Beauregard, PIERRE GUSTAVE TOUTANT, military officer; born on a plantation near New Orleans, May 28, 1818; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1838, and entered the artiliery service, but was transferred to the engineer corps. He won the brevets of captain

GEN. PIERRE G. T. BEAUREGARD.

and major in the war with Mexico, and was wounded at Chapultepec; also at the taking of the city of Mexico. He left the service of the United States in 1861, and joined the Confederates in February. He conducted the siege of Fort Sumter, and was afterwards active as a leader in Virginia and other parts of the slave-labor States. Beauregard was made brigadier-general in the Confederate army, Feb. 20, 1861, and was placed in command of the gathering army of Confederates at Manassas Junction—the Department of Alexandria. He took the command at the beginning of June, 1861, and issued a proclamation which was calculated and intended to "fire the Southern heart." He said: "A reckless and unprincipled tyrant has invaded your soil. Abraham Lincoln, regardless of all moral, legal, and constitutional restraints, has thrown his abolition hosts among us, who are murdering and imprisoning your citizens, confiscating and destroying your property, and committing other acts of violence and outrage too shocking and revolting to humanity to be enumerated. All rules of civilized warfare are abandoned, and they proclaim by their acts, if not on their banners, that their war-cry is 'Beauty and Booty.' All that is dear to man—your honor, and that of your wives and daughters, your fortunes, and your lives—are involved in this monstrous contest." He then, as "General of the Confederate States, commanding at Camp Pickens, Manassas Junction," invited the people of Virginia to a vindication of their patriotism, "by the name and memory of their Revolutionary fathers, and by the purity and sanctity of their domestic firesides, to rally to the standard of their State and country," and by every means in their power "compatible with honorable warfare, to drive back and expel the invaders from the land." The speech of President Davis at Richmond and this proclamation of Beauregard were lauded by the Confederates at Washington and Baltimore as having the ring of true metal. After the battle of BULL RUN (*q. v.*), in July, he was promoted to major-general. He took command of the Army of the Mississippi, under Gen. A. S. Johnston, and directed the battle of Shiloh in April, 1862, after the death of Johnston. He successfully defended Charleston in 1862–63, and in May, 1864, he joined Lee in the defence of Petersburg and Richmond. As commander of the forces in the Carolinas in 1865, he joined them with those of Gen. J. E. Johnston, and surrendered them to Sherman. At the close of the war, with the full rank of general in the Confederate service, he settled in New Orleans, where he died, Feb. 20, 1893.

Beaver, JAMES ADDAMS, military officer; born in Millerstown, Pa., Oct. 21, 1837; was graduated at Jefferson College

in 1856; entered the army in 1861; was shot through the body at Chancellorsville, in the side at Petersburg, and lost a leg at Ream's Station; brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers; was elected governor of Pennsylvania as a Republican in 1887; and was a member of President McKinley's commission to investigate the conduct of the War Department during the American-Spanish War.

Beaver Dams, Affair at the. After leaving Fort George the British established a strong post and depot of supplies at the Beaver Dams, among the hills 18 miles west of Queenstown. Dearborn determined to attempt the capture of this post and its stores, and for that purpose he detached 570 infantry, some cavalry under Major Chapin, a few artillerymen, and two field-pieces, all under the command of Lieut.-Col. Charles G. Bœrstler. They marched up the Niagara River to Queenstown (June 23, 1813), and the next morning pushed off westward. Their march appears to have been discovered by the British, for while Chapin's mounted men were in the advance and marching among the hills, Bœrstler's rear was attacked by John Brant, at the head of 450 Mohawk and Caughnawaga Indians, who lay in ambush. Chapin was instantly called back, and the Americans in a body charged upon the Indians and drove them almost a mile. Then Bœrstler hesitated, and the Indians, rallying, bore upon his flank and rear, and kept up a galling fire at every exposed situation. The Americans pushed forward over the Beaver Dam Creek, fighting the dusky foe at a great disadvantage, and made conscious that they were almost surrounded by them. After keeping up this contest for about three hours, Bœrstler determined to abandon the expedition, when he found himself confronted by an unexpected force. Mrs. Laura Secord, a slight and delicate woman, living at Queenstown, became acquainted with Dearborn's plans, and at the time when Bœrstler and his forces left Fort George—a hot summer evening—she made a circuitous journey of 19 miles on foot to the quarters of Lieutenant-Colonel Fitzgibbon (who was in command of some regulars at the Beaver Dams) and warned him of his danger. Thus forewarned, he had ordered the Indian ambush, and, displaying his men to the best advantage after Bœrstler had crossed the creek, he boldly demanded the surrender of the Americans to Major De Haven, commander of the district. For this purpose Fitzgibbon bore a flag himself. He falsely assured Bœrstler that his party was only the advance of 1,500 British troops and 700 Indians, under Lieutenant-Colonel Bisshopp, and that the barbarians were so exasperated that it would be difficult to restrain them from massacring the Americans. Bœrstler, deceived and alarmed, agreed to surrender on certain conditions. De Haven, whom Fitzgibbon had sent for, came up with 200 men, and Bœrstler and 500 soldiers were made prisoners. It had been agreed that the captives should be protected and sent back on parole. This promise was broken. The Indians plundered the captive troops, and the latter were sent to Burlington Heights and kept prisoners of war. When Bœrstler was first attacked by the Indians, he sent a courier back to Dearborn for aid, and that commander sent Colonel Christie with 300 men to reinforce him. When they reached Queenstown, they heard of the surrender, and hastened back to camp with the sad intelligence. The British advanced upon Queenstown, and, occupying that place, soon invested Fort George.

Bedel, Timothy, military officer; born in Salem, N. H., about 1740; was a brave and faithful officer in the war for independence. He was attached to the Northern army, and had the full confidence and esteem of General Schuyler, its commander. He was captain of rangers in 1775, and early in 1776 was made colonel of a New Hampshire regiment. He was with Montgomery at the capture of St. John's on the Sorel, and was afterwards in command at the Cedars, not far from Montreal, where a cowardly surrender by a subordinate, in Bedel's absence, caused the latter to be tried by a court-martial, on a false charge, made by General Arnold. He was deprived of command for a while, but was reinstated. He died at Haverhill, N. H., in February, 1787.

Beebe, Bezaleel, military officer; born in Litchfield, Conn., April 28, 1741; was one of the Rogers Rangers, and was engaged in the fight in which Putnam was

taken, also in the capture of Montreal in 1760. In July, 1775, he was commissioned lieutenant and sent to Boston. In 1776 he saw active service in New York and New Jersey, and was taken prisoner at the capture of Fort Washington and confined in New York nearly a year. Towards the end of the Revolution he was appointed brigadier-general and commander of all the Connecticut troops for sea-coast defence. He died in Litchfield, May 29, 1824.

Beecher's Bibles. During the Kansas trouble, in 1854–60, Henry Ward Beecher declared that for the slave-holder of Kansas the Sharpe rifle was a greater moral agency than the Bible, and so those rifles became known as "Beecher's Bibles."

BEECHER, HENRY WARD

Beecher, HENRY WARD, clergyman; born in Litchfield, Conn., June 24, 1813; son of Lyman Beecher; was graduated at Amherst College in 1834. He afterwards studied theology in Lane Seminary. For a few years he was pastor of a Presbyterian church in Indiana, first at Lawrenceburg and then at Indianapolis. In

HENRY WARD BEECHER.

1847 he was called to the pastorate of a new Congregational organization in Brooklyn, called Plymouth Church, over which he presided as pastor till his death, March 8, 1887. From the beginning of his ministry, Mr. Beecher held a high rank as a public teacher and pulpit orator, with a constantly increasing reputation. Laying aside the conventionalities of his sacred profession, and regarding the Gospel minister as peculiarly a leader in social life, his sermons were always marked by practical good-sense, and embraced in their topics the whole field of human society. They were largely made up of illustrations drawn from every phase of life and the instructions of nature. He had an abiding love of music, the fine arts, flowers, and animals; and believing Christianity to be, not a philosophical system, but an exalted rule of conduct, he never hesitated to discuss in the pulpit the great problems of the times in politics and social life—temperance, social evils, and the lust for power and gain. His persistent and forceful denunciation of the evils of slavery brought him into the greatest prominence during the Civil War period, while his speeches made during his visit to England in 1863 did much to disabuse public opinion there as to the merits of the struggle. Mr. Beecher led a most active life as preacher, editor, lyceum lecturer, and author of numerous books. He began editorial labors before he began to preach, conducting for a year (1836) *The Cincinnati Journal;* and for nearly twenty years he was an editorial contributor to the *New York Independent*, a weekly newspaper. From 1870 he was editor several years of the *Christian Union*, a weekly paper published in New York, and was a constant contributor to other publications. In 1874 Mr. Beecher was accused of criminal conduct with Mrs. Theodore Tilton. He was exonerated by the committee of Plymouth Church, but in the civil suit instituted by Mr. Tilton, which lasted more than six months, the jury failed to agree. The case attracted the attention of the entire world.

The System of Slavery.—The following is Mr. Beecher's address in Liverpool, England, Oct. 16, 1863, the feeling of his auditors towards his subject and himself being clearly indicated parenthetically:

For more than twenty-five years I have been made perfectly familiar with popular assemblies in all parts of my country, ex-

cept the extreme South. There has not, for the whole of that time, been a single day of my life when it would have been safe for me to go south of Mason and Dixon's line in my own country, and all for one reason: my solemn, earnest, persistent testimony against that which I consider to be the most atrocious thing under the sun—the system of American slavery in a great, free republic. (Cheers.) I have passed through that early period when right of free speech was denied to me. Again and again I have attempted to address audiences that, for no other crime than that of free speech, visited me with all manner of contumelious epithets; and now, since I have been in England, although I have met with greater kindness and courtesy on the part of most than I deserved, yet, on the other hand, I perceive that the Southern influence prevails to some extent in England. (Applause and uproar.) It is my old acquaintance; I understand it perfectly (laughter), and I have always held it to be an unfailing truth that where a man had a cause that would bear examination he was perfectly willing to have it spoken about. (Applause.) And when in Manchester I saw those huge placards: "Who is Henry Ward Beecher?" (Laughter, cries of "Quite right," and applause.) And when in Liverpool I was told that there were those blood-red placards, purporting to say what Henry Ward Beecher had said, and calling upon Englishmen to suppress free speech—I tell you what I thought. I thought simply this: "I am glad of it." (Laughter.) Why? Because if they had felt perfectly secure, that *you* are the minions of the South and the slaves of slavery, they would have been perfectly still. (Applause and uproar.) And, therefore, when I saw so much nervous apprehension that, if I were permitted to speak—(hisses and applause)—when I found they were afraid to have me speak—(hisses and applause, and "No, no!")—when I found that they considered my speaking damaging to their cause—(applause)—when I found that they appealed from facts and reasonings to mob law—(applause and uproar)—I said, no man need tell me what the heart and secret counsel of these men are. They tremble and are afraid. (Applause, laughter, hisses, "No, no!" and a voice: "New York mob.") Now, personally, it is a matter of very little consequence to me whether I speak here to-night or not. (Laughter and cheers.) But one thing is very certain, if you do permit me to speak here to-night you will hear very plain talking. (Applause and hisses.) You will not find a man—(interruption)—you will not find me to be a man that dared to speak about Great Britain 3,000 miles off, and then is afraid to speak to Great Britain when he stands on her shores. (Immense applause and hisses.) And if I do not mistake the tone and temper of Englishmen, they would rather have a man who opposes them in a manly way—(applause from all parts of the hall)—than a sneak that agrees with them in an unmanly way. (Applause and "Bravo!") Now, if I can carry you with me by sound convictions, I shall be immensely glad—(applause)—but if I cannot carry you with me by facts and sound arguments, I do not wish you to go with me at all; and all that I ask is simply fair play. (Applause, and a voice: "You shall have it, too.")

Those of you who are kind enough to wish to favor my speaking—and you will observe that my voice is slightly husky, from having spoken almost every night in succession for some time past—those who wish to hear me will do me the kindness simply to sit still and to keep still; and I and my friends the Secessionists will make all the noise. (Laughter.)

There are two dominant races in modern history—the Germanic and the Romanic races. The Germanic races tend to personal liberty, to a sturdy individualism, to civil and to political liberty. The Roman race tends to absolutism in government; it is clannish; it loves chieftains; it develops a people that crave strong and showy governments to support and plan for them. The Anglo-Saxon race belongs to the great German family, and is a fair exponent of its peculiarities. The Anglo-Saxon carries self-government and self-development with him wherever he goes. He has popular government and popular industry; for the effects of a generous civil liberty are not seen a whit more plain in the good order, in the intelligence, and in the virtue of

a self-governing people, than in their amazing enterprise, and the scope and power of their creative industry. The power to create riches is just as much a part of the Anglo-Saxon virtues as the power to create good order and social safety. The things required for prosperous labor, prosperous manufactures, and prosperous commerce are three: First, liberty; second, liberty; third, liberty—("Hear, hear!")—though these are not merely the same liberty, as I shall show you. First, there must be liberty to follow those laws of business which experience has developed, without imposts or restrictions or governmental intrusions. Business simply wants to be let alone. ("Hear, hear!") Then, secondly, there must be liberty to distribute and exchange products of industry in any market without burdensome tariffs, without imposts, and without vexatious regulations. There must be these two liberties — liberty to create wealth, as the makers of it think best, according to the light and experience which business has given them; and then liberty to distribute what they have created without unnecessary vexatious burdens. The comprehensive law of the ideal industrial condition of the world is free manufacture and free trade. ("Hear, hear!" A voice: "The Morrill tariff." Another voice: "Monroe.") I have said there were three elements of liberty. The third is the necessity of an intelligent and free race of customers. There must be freedom among producers; there must be freedom among the distributers; there must be freedom among the customers. It may not have occurred to you that it makes any difference what one's customers are, but it does in all regular and prolonged business. The condition of the customer determines how much he will buy. Poor and ignorant people buy little, and that of the poorest kind. The richest and the intelligent, having the more means to buy, buy the most and always buy the best. Here, then, are the three liberties: liberty of the producer, liberty of the distributer, and liberty of the consumer. The first two need no discussion; they have been long thoroughly and brilliantly illustrated by the political economists of Great Britain and by her eminent statesmen; but it seems to me that enough attention has not been directed to the third; and, with your patience, I will dwell upon that for a moment, before proceeding to other topics.

It is a necessity of every manufacturing and commercial people that their customers should be very wealthy and intelligent. Let us put the subject before you in the familiar light of your own local experience. To whom do the tradesmen of Liverpool sell the most goods at the highest profit? To the ignorant and poor or to the educated and prosperous? (A voice: "To the Southerners." Laughter.) The poor man buys simply for his body; he buys food, he buys clothing, he buys fuel, he buys lodging. . . .

On the other hand, a man well off—how is it with him? He buys in far greater quantity. He can afford to do it; he has the money to pay for it. He buys in far greater variety, because he seeks to gratify not merely physical wants, but also mental wants. He buys for the satisfaction of sentiment and taste, as well as of sense. He buys silk, wool, flax, cotton; he buys all metals—iron, silver, gold, platinum; in short, he buys for all necessities and all substances. But that is not all. He buys a better quality of goods. He buys richer silks, finer cottons, higher-grained wools. Now a rich silk means so much skill and care of somebody's, that has been expended upon it to make it finer and richer; and so of cotton and so of wool. That is, the price of the finer goods runs back to the very beginning and remunerates the workman as well as the merchant. Now, the whole laboring community is as much interested and profited as the mere merchant, in this buying and selling of the higher grades in the greater varieties and quantities. . . . Both the workman and the merchant are profited by having purchasers that demand quality, variety, and quantity. Now, if this be so in the town or the city, it can only be so because it is a law. This is the specific development of a general or universal law, and, therefore, we should expect to find it as true of a nation as of a city like Liverpool. I know that it is so, and you know that it is true of all the world; and it is just as important to have customers educated, intelligent, moral, and rich out of Liver-

pool as it is in Liverpool. (Applause.) They are able to buy; they want variety; they want the very best, and those are the customers you want. That nation is the best customer that is freest, because freedom works prosperity, industry, and wealth. Great Britain, then, aside from moral considerations, has a direct commercial and pecuniary interest in the liberty, civilization, and wealth of every nation on the globe. (Loud applause.) You also have an interest in this, because you are a moral and religious people. ("Oh, oh!" laughter and applause.) You desire it from the highest motives; and godliness is profitable in all things, having the promise of the life that now is as well as of that which is to come; but if there were no hereafter, and if man had no progress in this life, and if there were no question of civilization at all, it would be worth your while to protect civilization and liberty merely as a commercial speculation. . . .

They have said that your chief want is cotton. I deny it. Your chief want is consumers. (Applause and hisses.) You have got skill, you have got capital, and you have got machinery enough to manufacture goods for the whole population of the globe. You could turn out fourfold as much as you do, if you only had the market to sell in. It is not so much the want, therefore, of fabric, though there may be a temporary obstruction of it; but the principal and increasing want —increasing from year to year—is, where shall we find men to buy what we can manufacture so fast? (Interruption and a voice, "The Morrill tariff," and applause.) Before the American war broke out, your warehouses were loaded with goods that you could not sell. (Applause and hisses.) You had over-manufactured; what is the meaning of over-manufacturing but this: that you had skill, capital, machinery, to create faster than you had customers to take goods off your hands? And you know that rich as Great Britain is, vast as are her manufactures, if she could have fourfold the present demand, she could have fourfold riches tomorrow; and every political economist will tell you that your want is not cotton primarily, but customers. Therefore, the doctrine how to make customers is a great deal more important to Great Britain than the doctrine how to raise cotton. It is to that doctrine I ask from you, business men, practical men, men of fact, sagacious Englishmen, to that point I ask a moment's attention. (Shouts of "Oh, oh!" hisses and applause.) There are no more continents to be discovered. ("Hear, hear!") The market of the future must be found—how? There is very little hope of any more demand being created by new fields. If you are to have a better market there must be some kind of process invented to make the old fields better. (A voice: "Tell us something new," shouts of "Order!" and interruption.) Let us look at it, then. You must civilize the world in order to make a better class of purchasers. (Interruption.) If you were to press Italy down again, under the feet of despotism, Italy, discouraged, could draw but very few supplies from you. . . .

A savage is a man of one story, and that one story a cellar. When a man begins to be civilized, he raises another story. When you Christianize and civilize the man, you put story upon story, for you develop faculty after faculty; and you have to supply every story with your productions. The savage is a man one story deep; the civilized man is thirty stories high. (Applause.) Now, if you go to a lodging-house, where there are three or four men, your sales to them may, no doubt, be worth something; but if you go to a lodging-house like some of those which I saw in Edinburgh, which seemed to contain about twenty stories —("Oh, oh!" and interruption)—every story of which is full, and all who occupy buy of you—which is the better customer, the man who is drawn out or the man who is pinched up? (Laughter.) Now, there is in this a great and sound principle of economy. ("Yah, yah!" from the passage outside the hall and loud laughter.) If the South should be rendered independent—(at this juncture mingled cheering and hissing became immense; half the audience rose to their feet, waving hats and handkerchiefs, and in every part of the hall there was the greatest commotion and uproar). You have had your turn now; now let me have mine again. (Loud applause and laughter.) It is a little inconvenient to talk against

the wind; but, after all, if you will just keep good-natured—I am not going to lose my temper; will you watch yours? (Applause.) Besides all that, it rests me, and gives me a chance, you know, to get my breath. (Applause and hisses.) And I think that the bark of those men is worse than their bite. They do not mean any harm—they don't know any better. (Loud laughter, applause, hisses, and continued uproar.) I was saying, when these responses broke in, that it was worth our while to consider both alternatives. What will be the result if this present struggle shall eventuate in the separation of America and making the South—(loud applause, hisses, hooting, and cries of "Bravo!")—a slave territory exclusively—(cries of "No, no!" and laughter)—and the North a free territory—what will be the final result? You will lay the foundation for carrying the slave population clear through to the Pacific Ocean. This is the first step. There is not a man who has been a leader of the South any time within these twenty years that has not had this for a plan. It was for this that Texas was invaded, first by colonists, next by marauders, until it was wrested from Mexico. It was for this that they engaged in the Mexican War itself, by which the vast territory reaching to the Pacific was added to the Union. Never for a moment have they given up the plan of spreading the American institutions, as they call them, straight through towards the West; until the slave, who has washed his feet in the Atlantic, shall be carried to wash them in the Pacific. (Cries of "Question?" and uproar.) There! I have got that statement out and you cannot put it back. (Laughter and applause.) Now, let us consider the prospect. If the South becomes a slave empire, what relation will it have to you as a customer? (A voice: "Or any other man." Laughter.) It would be an empire of 12,000,000 of people. Now, of these 8,000,000 are white and 4,000,000 black. (A voice: "How many have you got?" Applause and laughter. Another voice: "Free your own slaves.") Consider that one-third of the whole are the miserably poor, unbuying blacks. (Cries of "No, no!" "Yes, yes!" and interruption.) You do not manufacture much for them. (Hisses, "Oh!" "No.") You have not got machinery coarse enough. (Laughter and "No!") Your labor is too skilled by far to manufacture bagging and linsey-woolsey. (A Southerner: "We are going to free them, every one.") Then you and I agree exactly. (Laughter.) One other third consists of a poor, unskilled, degraded white population, and the remaining one-third, which is a large allowance, we will say intelligent and rich.

Now here are 12,000,000 of people, and only one-third of them are customers that can afford to buy the kind of goods that you bring to market. (Interruption and uproar.) My friends, I saw a man once, who was a little late at a railway station, chase an express train. He did not catch it. (Laughter.) If you are going to stop this meeting, you have got to stop it before I speak; for after I have got the things out, you may chase as long as you please—you would not catch them. (Laughter and interruption.) But there is luck in leisure; I'm going to take it easy. (Laughter.) Two-thirds of the population of the Southern States to-day are non-purchasers of English goods. (A voice: "No, they are not;" "No, no!" and uproar.) Now, you must recollect another fact—namely, that this is going on clear through to the Pacific Ocean; and if by sympathy or help you establish a slave empire, you sagacious Britons—("Oh, oh!" and hooting)—if you like it better, then, I will leave the adjective out—(laughter, "Hear!" and applause)—are busy in favoring the establishment of an empire from ocean to ocean that should have fewest customers and the largest non-buying population. (Applause, "No, no!" A voice: "I thought it was the happy people that populated fastest.") . . . It is said that the North is fighting for union, and not for emancipation. The North is fighting for union, for that insures emancipation. (Loud cheers, "Oh, oh!" "No, no!" and cheers.) A great many men say to ministers of the Gospel: "You pretend to be preaching and working for the love of the people. Why, you are all the time preaching for the sake of the Church." What does the minister say? "It is by means of the Church that we help the people," and when men say that we are fighting for the Union, I too say we are fighting

for the Union. ("Hear, hear!" and a voice: "That's right.") But the motive determines the value; and why are we fighting for the Union? Because we never shall forget the testimony of our enemies. They have gone off declaring that the Union in the hands of the North was fatal to slavery. (Loud applause.) There is testimony in court for you. (A voice: "See that," and laughter.). . .

In the first place, I am ashamed to confess that such was the thoughtlessness—(interruption)—such was the stupor of the North—(renewed interruption)—you will get a word at a time; to-morrow will let folks see what it is you don't want to hear—that for a period of twenty-five years she went to sleep, and permitted herself to be drugged and poisoned with the Southern prejudice against black men. (Applause and uproar.) The evil was made worse because, when any object whatever has caused anger between political parties, a political animosity arises against that object, no matter how innocent in itself; no matter what were the original influences which excited the quarrel. Thus the colored man has been the football between the two parties in the North, and has suffered accordingly. I confess it to my shame. But I am speaking now on my own ground, for I began twenty-five years ago, with a small party, to combat the unjust dislike of the colored men. (Loud applause, dissension, and uproar. The interruption at this point became so violent that the friends of Mr. Beecher throughout the hall rose to their feet, waving hats and handkerchiefs, and renewing their shouts of applause. The interruption lasted some minutes.) Well, I have lived to see a total revolution in the Northern feeling—I stand here to bear solemn witness of that. It is my opinion; it is my knowledge. (Great uproar.) Those men who undertook to stand up for the rights of all men—black as well as white—have increased in number; and now what party in the North represents those men that resist the evil prejudices of past years? The Republicans are that party. (Loud applause.) And who are those men in the North that have oppressed the negro? They are the *Peace Democrats;* and the prejudice for which in England you are attempting to punish me, is a prejudice raised by the men who have opposed me all my life. These pro-slavery Democrats abused the negro. I defended him, and they mobbed me for doing it. Oh, justice! (Loud laughter, applause, and hisses.) . . .

There is another fact that I wish to allude to—not for the sake of reproach or blame, but by way of claiming your more lenient consideration—and that is, that slavery was entailed upon us by your action. ("Hear, hear!") Against the earnest protests of the colonists the then government of Great Britain—I will concede not knowing what were the mischiefs—ignorantly, but in point of fact, forced slave traffic on the unwilling colonists. (Great uproar, in the midst of which one individual was lifted up and carried out of the room amid hisses and cheers.)

The Chairman: "If you would only sit down no disturbance would take place."

(The disturbance having subsided, Mr. Beecher continued.)

I was going to ask you, suppose each child is born with hereditary disease; suppose this disease was entailed upon him by parents who had contracted it by their own misconduct, would it be fair that those parents that had brought into the world the diseased child, should rail at that child because it was diseased? ("No, no!") Would not the child have the right to turn round and say: "Father, it was your fault that I had it, and you ought to be pleased to be patient with my deficiencies"? (Applause and hisses, and cries of "Order!" great interruption and great disturbance here took place on the right of the platform; and the chairman said that if the persons around the unfortunate individual who had caused the disturbance would allow him to speak alone, but not assist him in making the disturbance, it might soon be put an end to. The interruption continued until another person was carried out of the hall. Mr. Beecher continued.) I do not ask that you should justify slavery in us, because it was wrong in you 200 years ago; but having ignorantly been the means of fixing it upon us, now that we are struggling with mortal struggles to free ourselves from it, we have a right to your tolerance, your patience, and charitable constructions.

No man can unveil the future: no man

can tell what revolutions are about to break upon the world; no man can tell what destiny belongs to France, nor to any of the European powers; but one thing is certain, that in the exigencies of the future there will be combinations and recombinations, and that those nations that are of the same faith, the same blood, and the same substantial interests ought not to be alienated from each other, but ought to stand together. (Immense cheering and hisses.) I do not say that you ought not to be in the most friendly alliance with France or with Germany; but I do say that your own children, the offspring of England, ought to be nearer to you than any people of strange tongue. (A voice: "Degenerate sons," applause and hisses; another voice: "What about the *Trent?*") If there had been any feelings of bitterness in America, let me tell you that they had been excited, rightly or wrongly, under the impression that Great Britain was going to intervene between us and our own lawful struggle. (A voice: "No!" and applause.) With the evidence that there is no such intention, all bitter feelings will pass away. (Applause.) We do not agree with the recent doctrine of neutrality as a question of law. But it is past, and we are not disposed to raise that question. We accept it as a fact, and we say that the utterance of Lord Russell at Blairgowrie—(applause, hisses, and a voice: "What about Lord Brougham?")—together with the declaration of the government in stopping war-steamers here—(great uproar and applause)—has gone far towards quieting every fear, and removing every apprehension from our minds. (Uproar and shouts of applause.) And now in the future it is the work of every good man and patriot not to create divisions, but to do things that will make for peace. ("Oh, oh," and laughter.) On our part it shall be done. (Applause and hisses, and "No, no.") On your part it ought to be done; and when in any of the convulsions that come upon the world, Great Britain finds herself struggling single-handed against the gigantic powers that spread oppression and darkness—(applause, hisses, and uproar)—there ought to be such cordiality that she can turn and say to her first-born and most illustrious child, "Come!" ("Hear, hear!" applause, tremendous cheers, and uproar.) I will not say that England cannot again, as hitherto, single-handed manage any power—(applause and uproar—but I will say that England and America together for religion and liberty —(a voice: "Soap, soap!" uproar, and great applause)—are a match for the world. (Applause; a voice: "They don't want any more soft soap.") Now, gentlemen and ladies—(a voice: "Sam Slick"; and another voice: "Ladies and gentlemen, if you please")—when I came I was asked whether I would answer questions, and I very readily consented to do so, as I had in other places; but I will tell you it was because I expected to have the opportunity of speaking with some sort of ease and quiet. (A voice: "So you have.") I have for an hour and a half spoken against a storm—("Hear, hear!") —and you yourselves are witnesses that, by the interruption, I have been obliged to strive with my voice so that I no longer have the power to control this assembly. (Applause.) And although I am in spirit perfectly willing to answer any question, and more than glad of the chance, yet I am by this very unnecessary opposition to-night incapacitated physically from doing it. Ladies and gentlemen, I bid you good-evening.

Beecher, LYMAN, clergyman; born in New Haven, Conn., Oct. 2, 1775; was graduated at Yale in 1797, and ordained in 1799. In 1832 he accepted the presidency of Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, and served the seminary in that capacity twenty years. He had seven sons, all of whom became Congregational clergymen—William, Edward, George, Henry Ward, Charles, Thomas, and James. His daughters were Catharine Beecher, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Mary Beecher Perkins, and Isabella Beecher Hooker. He died in Brooklyn, Jan. 10, 1863.

Beekman, GERARDUS, colonial governor; was a member of Leisler's council in 1688 and was condemned with Leisler, but subsequently pardoned. In 1700 he became lieutenant-colonel of a militia regiment under Governor Bellomont. After the removal of Governor Ingoldsby, Beekman was president of the council and acting governor of New York until the arrival of Governor Hunter, in whose coun-

cil he also served. He died in New York City about 1728.

Beet Sugar. This substitute for the product of sugar-cane was first made in 1747 in Germany by Marggraf, who discovered that excellent sugar could be obtained from the common beet. In 1830 efforts were made in the United States to establish the beet-sugar industry, but it was not until 1876 that an adequately equipped factory was erected for the purpose, in Alvarado, Cal. Since that year many similar ones have been built, mostly in the Western States, and the industry may now be said to be firmly established. Federal and State governments have greatly aided in bringing about this result through the offer of bounties on production. Beet-roots yield an average of about 10 per cent. of saccharine matter, and sugar-cane about 18 per cent. The white Slevig beet is the richest among the varieties. In manufacturing, the roots are compressed into a pulp by machinery; the pulp is put into bags, and the juice forced out by presses. After the juice has been clarified by the use of lime or sulphuric acid, it is filtered till no deposit is apparent, and then boiled for the purpose of concentrating it. When the density of 25 Beaume has been reached, the juice is strained through flannel, becoming a dark-colored syrup, which in turn is filtered through animal charcoal, or bone-black, to free it of its mucilage and coloring matter. The filtered juice is then treated with lime-water and the whites of eggs, and stirred till it is slightly alkaline. It is then placed in copper pans, and while boiling is constantly stirred and scummed. After sufficient concentration the substance is placed in a warm room for several days till it crystallizes. The juice or molasses which remains is drained off, and the solid part is raw sugar. This may be further refined by dissolving again and using albumen and blood.

Experiments in beet sugar production were stimulated by the United States bounty law, in operation from July 1, 1891, to Aug. 27, 1894.

In the period 1890–1900 the output in the United States was increased from 2,800 tons to 74,944 tons. The following table shows the production, in long tons, in the United States in the season of 1899–1900:

California	37,938
Nebraska	4,591
Utah	8,574
New Mexico	446
New York	1,607
Michigan	16,699
Minnesota	2,053
Oregon	982
Illinois	804
Colorado	804
Washington	446
Totals for United States	74,944

Behring. See BERING.

Beissel, JOHANN CONRAD, reformer; born in Eberbach, Germany, in 1690; becoming a Dunker he was forced to leave his native country and emigrated to Pennsylvania, where in 1733 he established at the village of Ephrata a monastic society, which at one time numbered nearly 300. The Capuchin habit was adopted by both sexes and celibacy was considered a virtue, though not an obligation. Soon after the death of Beissel, in 1768, the society at Ephrata began to decline. A history of the Ephrata society was published in 1901.

Belcher, JONATHAN, colonial governor; born in Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 8, 1681; was graduated at Harvard College in 1699. He visited Europe, where he became acquainted with the Princess Sophia and her son (afterwards George I. of England), which led to his future honors. After a six years' sojourn he returned to America, engaged in mercantile business in Boston, became a member of the Provincial Assembly, and in 1729 was sent as agent of the provinces to England. In 1730 he was appointed governor of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, which office he held eleven years. He was authorized to accept from the legislature of Massachusetts a standing salary of $5,000 a year, to be paid first out of the annual grants. When he first met the legislature (September, 1730), he tried to bring about a settlement for a standing salary, but could not, and the Assembly was dissolved. To secure a majority in the next House, the governor tried to gain the influence of certain leaders by gifts of office; but their acceptance diminished their popularity, and he gained nothing. The people had been encouraged by the English press, which had commended the Bostonians for their

"noble stand" against the demands of Burnet, which had "endeared them to all lovers and asserters of liberty." The new court was unmanageable by the governor, and he accepted a grant of a salary for one year. In consequence of a clamor against him, he was superseded in 1741, but succeeded in vindicating himself before the British Court. Belcher was made governor of New Jersey, and arrived in 1747, where he passed the remainder of his life. He extended the charter of the College of New Jersey, and was its chief patron and benefactor. He died in Elizabethtown, N. J., Aug. 31, 1757.

Belknap, GEORGE EUGENE, naval officer; born in Newport, N. H., Jan. 22, 1832; entered the navy as midshipman in 1855, and in 1862 became lieutenant-commander. He became executive officer of the iron-clad *New Ironsides* in 1862, and was with her in her contests with the forts in Charleston Harbor in 1863, receiving commendation from Rear-Admiral Dahlgren. In the attacks on FORT FISHER (*q. v.*) he commanded the iron-clad *Canonicus*. He was promoted to rear-admiral in 1889, and retired in 1894. He died in Key West, Fla., April 7, 1903.

Belknap, JEREMY, clergyman; born in Boston, June 4, 1744; graduated at Harvard College in 1762. He founded the Massachusetts Historical Society; was an overseer of Harvard College; was a patriot during the war for independence, and an opponent of African slavery. He published a *History of New Hampshire; American Biography*, etc. He died in Boston, Mass., June 20, 1798.

Belknap, WILLIAM WORTH, military officer; born in Newburg, N. Y., Sept. 22, 1829; removed to Iowa in 1851; elected to the legislature in 1857; entered the army as major of an Iowa regiment, and reached the grade of major-general, March 13, 1865. He was appointed Secretary of War, Oct. 13, 1869; impeached March 7, 1876, but acquitted for want of jurisdiction. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 12, 1890.

Bell, ALEXANDER GRAHAM, inventor; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, March 3, 1847; son of Alexander Melville; was educated in Edinburgh and London universities. In 1870 he went to Canada, and thence to Boston in 1872, and became Professor of Vocal Physiology in the Boston University. He invented the telephone, which was first exhibited at the Centennial Exposition in 1876. He also invented the photophone.

Bell, CHARLES H., naval officer; born in New York, Aug. 15, 1798; entered the naval service in June, 1812; served with Decatur in 1813–14; with Chauncey, on Lake Ontario, in 1814; and with Decatur again, in the Mediterranean, in 1815. He was with the squadron in the West Indies (1824–29) operating against the pirates there. In 1860 he was in command of the Norfolk navy-yard; commanded the Pacific squadron in 1862–64, and the navy-yard at Brooklyn 1865–68. In July, 1866, he was made a rear-admiral. He died in New Brunswick, N. J., Feb. 19, 1875.

Bell, JAMES FRANKLIN, military officer; born in Lexington, Ky., in 1857; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1878; promoted to second lieutenant in the 9th Cavalry the same year, first lieutenant in the 7th Cavalry in 1890, and captain in 1899. In the volunteer army he was commissioned major of engineers May 17, 1898; major and assistant adjutant-general, April 17, 1899, and colonel of the 36th United States Infantry, July 5, 1899. In May, 1898, he was ordered to duty to Manila, where he was placed in charge of the Bureau of Information (or secret-service department of the army in the Philippines). In February, 1899, when operations were begun against the Filipino insurgents, he attached himself to the staff of General MacArthur, and rendered important service in scouting. On Sept. 9, for "most distinguished gallantry in action" near Porac, Luzon, President McKinley directed that a congressional medal of honor should be presented to him. On Nov. 12, Colonel Bell took possession of Tarlac, where Aguinaldo had established his headquarters. The following month he was promoted to brigadier-general of volunteers. On the reorganization of the regular army in February, 1901, President McKinley appointed Colonel Bell one of the new brigadier-generals—an act that caused considerable surprise, as this officer was only a captain in the regular army, and was advanced over the heads of more than 1,000

officers who, according to the rules of seniority, would have been entitled to precede him in promotion. General Bell is widely known in the army as a dashing cavalry officer, and when General Otis recommended the presentation of the medal of honor, he said that it was a wonder that Colonel Bell still lived, because of his recklessness in action.

Bell, JOHN, statesman; born near Nashville, Tenn., Feb. 15, 1797; was graduated at Cumberland College (now the University of Nashville) in 1814, and studied law in Franklin, Tenn. In 1817 he was elected to the State Senate. He was elected to Congress in 1827, and served till 1841. After abandoning his free-trade views, he became one of the founders of the WHIG PARTY (*q. v.*), and was elected Speaker of the House in 1834. Harrison appointed him Secretary of War in 1841, but he resigned when President Tyler left the Whig party. In 1847–59 he was a member of the United States Senate, and in 1860 he was the unsuccessful candidate of the CONSTITUTIONAL UNION PARTY (*q. v.*) for President, with Edward Everett for Vice-President. He died in Cumberland, Tenn., Sept. 10, 1869.

Belle Isle. See CONFEDERATE PRISONS.

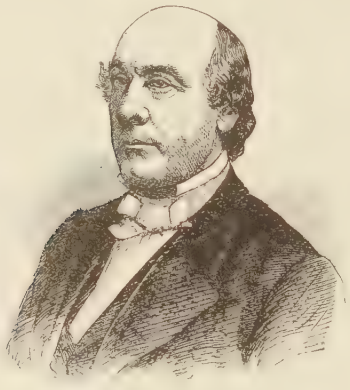
Belligerency, the recognition, on the part of other nations, that an actual state of war exists, and the right of both parties to the exercise of belligerent rights on the ocean. Neutrality implies belligerency. Great Britain, France, and other European powers, and Brazil, accorded belligerent rights to the Confederate States during the civil war.

Belligerents, parties, in the sense of nations or confederations, actually at war with each other. Sovereign States at war are always belligerents, but not every armed contest is a war, and combatants, to gain the status of belligerents, must be recognized as such by other sovereign States. The character of belligerents has never been accorded to pirates, filibusters, brigands, nor to any of those who commit violence in their own private interest, nor even to those who, guilty of violence, have not been duly authorized by the head of their State.

Bellingham, RICHARD, colonial governor; born in England in 1592. Bred a lawyer, he came to America in 1634, and was chosen deputy governor of Massachusetts the next year. He was elected governor, in opposition to Winthrop, in 1641. He was rechosen in 1654, and in 1666, after the death of Governor Endicott, continuing in office the rest of his life. His administration was a somewhat stormy one. Bellingham was so opposed to all innovations in religious matters that he was severe in his conduct towards the Friends, or Quakers. He died Dec. 7, 1672.

Bellomont, RICHARD COOTE, EARL OF, colonial governor; born in 1636; was of the Irish peerage, and among the first to espouse the cause of the Prince of Orange when he invaded England. He was created earl in 1689, and made treasurer and receiver-general of Queen Mary. In May, 1695, he was appointed governor of New York, but did not arrive there until May, 1698. Meanwhile he had been commissioned governor of Massachusetts, including New Hampshire; and on going to Boston, in 1699, he was well received, and his administration was popular. Bellomont had been one of the parliamentary committee appointed to investigate the affair of Leisler's trial and execution, and had taken a warm interest in the reversal of the attainder of that unfortunate leader. On his arrival in New York, he naturally connected himself with the Leisler party, whom Governor Fletcher had strongly opposed. Bellomont came with power to inquire into the conduct of Governor Fletcher, and he was so well satisfied of his malfeasance in office that he sent him to England under arrest. The remains of Leisler and Milborne were taken up, and after lying in state several days were reburied in the Dutch Church. Bellomont chose for his council a majority of "Leislerians"; and that party soon obtained a majority in the Assembly also. One of their first acts was to vote an indemnity to the heirs of Leisler. Bellomont used every means to gain the good-will of the people in both provinces, and succeeded. The earl was a shareholder in the privateer ship commanded by Captain Kidd; and when that seaman was accused of piracy Bellomont procured his arrest in Boston, and sent him to England for trial. Bellomont died in New York, March 5, 1701, and the earldom expired in 1800.

Bellows, HENRY WHITNEY, clergyman; born in Boston, June 11, 1814. Educated at Harvard and the Divinity School at Cambridge, he was ordained pastor of the first Unitarian Church in New York City in January, 1838. He remained its pastor



HENRY WHITNEY BELLOWS, D.D.

until his death, Jan. 30, 1882. He was the projector of the *Christian Inquirer*, in 1843, and he occupied from the beginning a conspicuous place in the pulpit, in letters, and in social life, wielding great influence for good. Dr. Bellows was one of the originators of the UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION (*q. v.*), which performed such prodigious benevolent work during the late Civil War. He was president of the commission from the beginning.

Belmont, AUGUST, financier; born in Germany, Dec. 6, 1816; removed to New York, 1837; consul-general of Austria in New York City, 1844–50; United States minister to Holland, 1854–58; chairman of the Democratic national committee, 1860–72. He died in New York City, Nov. 24, 1890.

Belmont, BATTLE AT. Just before Frémont was deprived of his command (see FRÉMONT, JOHN C.) he ordered General Grant to move a co-operative force along the line of the Mississippi River. It was promptly done. A column about 3,000 strong, chiefly Illinois volunteers, under Gen. John A. McClernand, went down from Cairo in transports and wooden gunboats to menace Columbus by attacking Belmont, opposite. At the same time another column, under Gen. C. F. Smith, marched from Paducah to menace Columbus in the rear. Grant went with McClernand. The troops landed 3 miles above Belmont, Nov. 7, 1861, and while they were pushing on the gunboats opened fire upon Columbus. General (Bishop) Polk, the commander, sent General Pillow over the river to reinforce the little garrison at Belmont. A sharp battle ensued, and the Nationals were victorious; but, exposed to the heavy artillery at Columbus, the post was untenable. Giving three cheers for the Union, the Nationals set fire to the Confederate camp, and hastened back towards their boats with the captured men, horses, and artillery. Polk opened seven of his heaviest guns upon them, and at the same time sent over some fresh troops under General Cheatham. Then he crossed over himself, with two regiments, making the whole Confederate force about 5,000 men. They fell upon Grant, and a desperate struggle ensued. Grant fought his way back to the transports under cover of a fire from the gunboats, and escaped. The Nationals lost about 500 men, and the Confederates over 600, killed, wounded, and missing.

Bemis's Heights, BATTLES OF. General Schuyler, with his feeble army, had so successfully opposed the march of Burgoyne down the valley of the Hudson that he had not passed Saratoga the first week in August, 1777. When the expedition of St. Leger from the Mohawk and the defeat of the Germans at Hoosick, near Bennington, had crippled and discouraged the invaders, and Schuyler was about to turn upon them, and strike for the victory for which he had so well prepared, he was superseded by General Gates in the command of the Northern army. Yet his patriotism was not cooled by the ungenerous act, the result of intrigue, and he offered Gates every assistance in his power. Had the latter acted promptly, he might have gained a victory at once; but he did not. At the end of twenty days he moved the army to a strong position on Bemis's Heights, where his camp was fortified by Kosciusko, the Polish patriot and engineer. Burgoyne called in his outposts, and with his shattered forces and splendid train of artillery he crossed the Hudson on a

bridge of boats (Sept. 13, 1777), and encamped on the Heights of Saratoga, afterwards Schuylerville. New courage had been infused into the hearts of the Americans by the events near Bennington and on the upper Mohawk, and Gates's army was rapidly increasing in numbers. Burgoyne felt compelled to move forward speedily. Some American troops, under Col. John Brown, had got in his rear, and surprised a British post at the foot of Lake George (Sept. 18). They also attempted to capture Ticonderoga. Burgoyne had moved slowly southward, and on the morning of Sept. 19 he offered battle to Gates.

NEILSON HOUSE ON BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.*

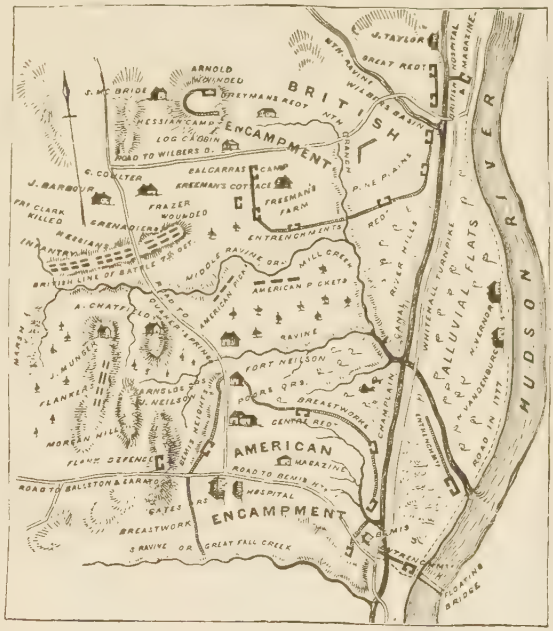
First Battle.—His left wing, with the immense artillery train, commanded by Generals Phillips and Riedesel, kept upon the plain near the river. The centre, composed largely of German troops, led by Burgoyne in person, extended to a range of hills that were touched by the American left, and upon these hills General Fraser and Lieutenant-Colonel Breyman, with grenadiers and infantry, were posted. The front and flank of Burgoyne's army were covered by the Canadians, Tories, and Indians who yet remained in camp. General Gates, who lacked personal courage and the skill of a good commander, resolved to act on the defensive. Gen. Benedict Arnold and others, who observed the movements of the British, urged Gates to attack them, but he refused to fight. Even at 11 A.M., when the booming of a cannon gave the signal for the general advance of Burgoyne's army, he remained in his tent, apparently indifferent. Arnold, as well as others, became extremely impatient as peril drew near. He was finally permitted to order Col. Daniel Morgan with his riflemen, and Dearborn with infantry, to attack the Canadians and Indians, who were swarming on the hills in advance of Burgoyne's right. These were driven back and pursued. Morgan's troops, becoming scattered, were recalled, and with New England troops, under Dearborn, Scammel, and Cilley, another furious charge was made. After a sharp engagement, in which Morgan's horse was shot under him, the combatants withdrew to their respective lines. Meanwhile Burgoyne had moved rapidly upon the American centre and left. At the same time the vigilant Arnold attempted to turn the British right. Gates denied him reinforcements, and restrained him in every way in his power, and he failed. Masked by thick woods, neither party was now certain of the movements of the other, and they suddenly and unexpectedly met in a ravine at Freeman's farm, at which Burgoyne had halted. There they fought desperately for a while. Arnold was pressed back, when Fraser, by a quick movement, called up some German troops from the

* The mansion of Mr. Neilson, an active Whig at the time of the battle. It was the headquarters of General Poor and Colonel Morgan. To it the wounded Major Acland was conveyed, and there was joined by his wife.

British centre to his aid. Arnold rallied his men, and with New England troops, led by Colonels Brooks, Dearborn, Scammel, Cilley, and Major Hull, he struck the enemy such heavy blows that his line began to waver and fall into confusion. General Phillips, below the heights, heard through the woods the din of battle, and hurried over the hills with fresh English troops and some artillery, followed by a portion of the Germans under Riedesel, and appeared on the battle-field just as victory seemed about to be yielded to the Americans. The battle continued. The British ranks were becoming fearfully thinned, when Riedesel fell heavily upon the American flank with infantry and artillery, and they gave way. The Germans saved the British army from ruin. A lull in the battle succeeded, but at the middle of the afternoon the contest was renewed with greater fury. At length the British, fearfully assailed by bullet and bayonet, recoiled and fell back. At that moment Arnold was at headquarters, seated upon a powerful black horse, and in vain urging Gates to give him reinforcements. Hearing the roar of the renewed battle, he could no longer brook delay, and turning his horse's head towards the field of strife, and exclaiming, "I'll soon put an end to it!" went off on a full gallop, followed by one of Gates's staff, with directions to order him back. The subaltern could not overtake the general, who, by words and acts, animated the Americans. For three hours the battle raged. Like an ocean tide the warriors surged backward and forward, winning and losing victory alternately. When it was too late, Gates sent out the New York regiments of Livingston and Van Cortlandt and the whole brigade of General Learned. Had Gates complied with Arnold's wishes, the capture of Burgoyne's army might have been easily accomplished. Night closed the contest, and both parties slept on their arms until morning. But for Arnold and Morgan, no doubt Burgoyne would have been marching triumphantly on Albany before noon that day. So jealous was Gates because the army praised those gallant leaders, that he omitted their names in his official report. The number of Americans killed and wounded in this action was about 300; of the British about 600.

Second Battle.—Burgoyne found his broken army utterly dispirited on the morning after the first battle, and he withdrew to a point 2 miles from the American lines. Arnold urged Gates to attack him at dawn, but that officer would not consent. Burgoyne was hoping to receive good news from Sir Henry Clinton, who was preparing to ascend the Hudson with a strong force. So he intrenched his camp, put his troops in better spirits by a cheerful harangue, and resolved to wait for Clinton. The next morning he was himself cheered by a message from Clinton, who promised to make a diversion in his favor immediately; also by a despatch from Howe, announcing a victory over Washington on the Brandywine (see BRANDYWINE, BATTLE OF). Burgoyne gave the glad tidings to his army, and wrote to Clinton that he could sustain his position until Oct. 12. But his condition rapidly grew worse. The American army hourly increased in numbers, and the militia were swarming on his flanks and rear. His foraging parties could get very little food for the starving horses, the militia so annoyed them. In his hospitals were 800 sick and wounded men, and his effective soldiers were fed on diminished rations. His Indian allies deserted him, while, through the exertions of Schuyler, Oneida warriors joined the forces of Gates. Lincoln, with 2,000 men, also joined him on the 22d; still Gates remained inactive. His officers were impatient, and Arnold plainly told him that the army was clamorous for action, and the militia were threatening to go home. He told him that he had reason to think that if they had improved the 20th of September it might have ruined the enemy. "That is past," he said; "let me entreat you to improve the present time." Gates was offended, and, treating the brave Arnold with silent contempt, sat still. A long time Burgoyne waited for further tidings from Clinton. On Oct. 4, he called a council of officers. It was decided to fight their way through the American lines, and, on the morning of Oct. 7, 1777, the whole army moved. Towards the American left wing Burgoyne pressed with 1,500 picked men, eight brass cannon, and two howitzers, leaving the main army on the heights in command

of Brigadiers Specht and Hamilton, and the redoubts near the river with Brigadier-General Gall. Phillips, Fraser, and Riedesel were with Burgoyne. Canadian rangers, loyalists, and Indians were sent to hang on the American rear, while Burgoyne should attack their front. This movement was discerned before the British were ready for battle. The drums of the American advanced guard beat to arms. The alarm ran all along the lines. Gates had 10,000 troops—enough to have crushed the weakened foe if properly handled. He inquired the cause of the disturbance, and then permitted Colonel Morgan to "begin the game." Morgan soon gained a good position on the British right, while General Poor, with his New Hampshire brigade, followed by General Ten Broeck, with New-Yorkers advanced against their left. Meanwhile, the Canadian rangers and their companions had gained the American rear, and attacked their pickets. They were soon joined by grenadiers. The Americans were driven back to their lines, when a sharp fight ensued. By this time the whole British line was in battle order, the grenadiers under Major Acland, with artillery under Major Williams, forming the left; the centre composed of British and grenadiers under Philips and Riedesel, and the right of infantry under Earl Balcarras. General Fraser, with 500 picked men, was in advance of the British right, ready to fall upon the left flank of the Americans when the action should begin on the front. It was now between three and four o'clock in the afternoon. As Burgoyne was about to advance, he was astonished by the thunder of cannon on his left, and the crack of rifles on his right. Poor had pressed up the thick-wooded slope on which Majors Acland and Williams were posted, unobserved, until he was near the batteries, which were captured after a desperate struggle, in which the leader of the British grenadiers was severely wounded, and Major Williams, of the artillery, was made prisoner. Five times one of the cannon was taken and retaken. When the British fell back, and the gun remained with the Americans, Colonel Cilley leaped upon it, waved his sword over his head, dedicated the piece to the "American cause," and, turning it upon the foe, he opened its destructive energies upon them with their own ammunition. Sir Francis Clarke, Burgoyne's chief aide, who was sent to secure the cannon, was mortally wounded, made a prisoner, and sent to Gates's tent. The whole eight cannon and the possession of the field remained with the Americans. Meanwhile Colonel Morgan had assailed Fraser's flanking corps so furiously that they were driven back to their lines. There Morgan fell upon the British right so fiercely that it was thrown into confusion. A panic prevailed. It was followed by an onslaught in front by Dearborn, with fresh troops, when the British broke and fled in terror. Balcarras soon rallied them, while the centre, composed



PLAN OF BATTLES ON BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.

chiefly of Germans, though convulsed, stood firm. Now Arnold came upon the scene. Gates, offended by what he called Arnold's "impertinence," had deprived him of all command, and he was an impatient spectator of the battle. When he could no longer restrain himself, he sprang upon his charger and started on full gallop for the field of action, pursued by a subaltern to call him back. He dashed into the vortex of danger, where the pursuer dared not follow. He was received with cheers by his old troops, and he led them against the British centre. With the desperation of a madman he rushed into the thickest of the fight. When, at the head of his men, he dashed into the firm German lines, they broke and fled in dismay. The battle was now general. Arnold and Morgan were the ruling spirits on the American side. Fraser was the soul that directed the most potent energies of the British. One of Morgan's riflemen singled him out by his brilliant uniform, and shot him through the body, wounding him mortally. Then a panic ran along the British line. At the sight of 3,000 fresh New York militia, under General Ten Broeck, approaching, the wavering line gave way, and the troops retreated to their intrenchments, leaving their artillery behind. Up to their intrenchments, the Americans, with Arnold at their head, eagerly pressed, in the face of a terrible storm of grape-shot and bullets. The works were assailed with small arms. Balcarras defended them bravely until he could resist no longer. The voice of Arnold was heard above the din of battle, and his form was seen, in the midst of the smoke, dashing from point to point. With the troops first of Generals Paterson and Glover, and then of Learned, he assailed the enemy's right, which was defended by Canadians and loyalists. The English gave way, leaving the Germans exposed. Then Arnold ordered up the troops of Livingston and Wesson, with Morgan's riflemen, to make a general assault, while Colonel Brooks, with his Massachusetts regiment, accompanied by Arnold, attacked the troops commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Breyman. Arnold rushed into the sally-port on his powerful black horse, and spread such terror among the Germans that they fled, giving a parting volley of bullets, one of which gave Arnold a severe wound in the same leg that was badly hurt at Quebec. At that moment he was overtaken by the subaltern, who had been sent by Gates to recall him, "lest he should do some rash thing." He had done it. He had achieved a victory for which Gates received the honor. The Germans had thrown down their weapons. Breyman was mortally wounded. The fight ended at twilight, and before the dawn, Burgoyne, who had resolved to retreat, removed his whole army a mile or two north of his intrenchments. In this remarkable battle—won by an officer who had been deprived of his command—the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, 150 men; that of the British, including prisoners, was about 700. Arnold was the only American commanding officer who received a wound. Burgoyne was defeated at Stillwater, Oct. 7, and ten days later surrendered his army of 6,000 men at Saratoga. See BURGOYNE.

Benedict, GEORGE GRENVILLE, military officer; born in Burlington, Vt., Dec. 10, 1826; graduated at the University of Vermont in 1847; served in the 12th Vermont Volunteers in 1862–63; and was author of *Vermont at Gettysburg; Vermont in the Civil War; Army Life in Virginia,* etc.

Benedict, LEWIS, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Sept. 2, 1817; was a graduate of Williams College; was admitted to the bar in 1841; was surrogate of Albany county in 1848, and member of Assembly in 1861. He entered the military service as lieutenant-colonel of volunteers in 1861; served in the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862; was captured, and confined in Libby and Salisbury prisons several months, and when exchanged was sent to the Department of the Gulf, where he was distinguished for his wisdom and bravery. He served as brigadier-general in the Red River campaign, till killed in the battle of Pleasant Hill, La., April 9, 1864.

Benezet, ANTHONY, philanthropist; born in France, Jan. 31, 1713; emigrated to Philadelphia in 1731, and taught school there nearly all his life. He became a member of the Society of Friends; and

his life was conspicuous for acts of benevolence. He wrote much against war and African slavery, and bequeathed his estate, on the death of his wife, to the African school in Philadelphia. He died in Philadelphia, May 3, 1784.

Benham, ANDREW ELLICOTT KENNEDY, naval officer; born in New York, April 10, 1832; entered the navy Nov. 24, 1847. During the Civil War he served in the South Atlantic and Western Gulf squadrons, and took part in the battle of Port Royal and other engagements. In 1894 he commanded a squadron at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and forced the commander of the insurgent squadron to raise the blockade of the city and to discontinue firing upon American merchant vessels. Rear-admiral in 1890; retired in 1894.

Benham, HENRY W., military officer; born in Cheshire, Conn., in 1817; was graduated at West Point, first in his class, in 1837. He served under General Taylor in the war with Mexico, and was wounded in the battle of Buena Vista. Early in the Civil War he was active in western Virginia, and afterwards on the South Carolina coast. He assisted in the capture of Fort Pulaski; and in 1863–64 he commanded an engineer brigade in the Army of the Potomac. He was brevetted brigadier-general for services in the campaign ending with the surrender of Lee, and major-general (March, 1865) for "meritorious services in the rebellion." He died in New York, June 1, 1884.

Benjamin, JUDAH PHILIP, lawyer; was born in St. Croix, West Indies, Aug. 11, 1811; was of Jewish parentage, and in 1816 his family settled in Savannah, Ga. Judah entered Yale College, but left it, in 1827, without graduating, and became a lawyer in New Orleans. He taught school for a while, married one of his pupils, and became a leader of his profession in Louisiana. From 1853 to 1861 he was United States Senator. He was regarded for several years as leader of the Southern wing of the Democratic party; and, when the question of secession divided the people, he withdrew from the Senate, and, with his coadjutor, John Slidell, he promoted the great insurrection. He became Attorney-General of the Southern Confederacy, acting Secretary of War, and Secretary of State. After the war he went to London, where he practised his profession with success. He died in Paris, May 8, 1884.

JUDAH PHILIP BENJAMIN.

Bennet, or **Bennett,** RICHARD, colonial governor; was appointed one of the Virginia commissioners to reconcile Virginia to the administration of Oliver Cromwell in 1651. In 1654 the Maryland royalists, under the instigation of Lord Baltimore, revolted, and intercolonial hostilities followed, resulting in a victory for the Virginians under Governor Bennet. During the night of March 25, 1655, many prisoners were taken, including the royalist Governor Stone. Some of these were afterwards executed.

Bennett, JAMES GORDON, founder of the New York *Herald;* born in New Mill, Scotland, Sept. 1, 1795; died in New York, June 1, 1872. Intending to enter upon the ministry in the Roman Catholic Church, he studied theology in Aberdeen some time, but, abandoning the intention, he went to British America, arriving at Halifax, N. S., in 1819, where he taught school. He made his way to Boston, where he became a proof-reader, and in 1822 he went to New York, and thence to Charleston, where he made translations from the Spanish for the Charleston *Courier.* Returning to New York, he became proprietor (1825) of the New York *Courier,* but did not succeed. After various editorial and journalistic adventures in New York and Pennsylvania, Mr. Bennett, in May, 1835, began the publication of the New York *Herald.* His method was a "new departure" in journalism.

The *Herald* obtained an immense circulation and advertising patronage. The profits of the establishment, at the time

JAMES GORDON BENNETT.

of Mr. Bennett's death, were estimated at from $500,000 to $700,000 a year. He died in the Roman Catholic faith, and bequeathed the *Herald* to his only son, JAMES GORDON BENNETT, Jr., who was born in New York City, May 10, 1841; fitted out the *Jeannette* polar expedition; sent Henry M. Stanley in search of Dr. Livingstone in Africa; constructed, with John W. Mackay, a new cable between America and Europe; and greatly promoted international yachting.

Bennington, BATTLE NEAR. Falling short of provisions, Burgoyne sent out an expedition from his camp on the Hudson River to procure cattle, horses to mount Riedesel's dragoons, to "try the affections of the country," and to complete a corps of loyalists. Colonel Baum led the expedition, which consisted of 800 men, comprising German dragoons and British marksmen, a body of Canadians and Indians, some loyalists as guides, and two pieces of artillery. They penetrated the country eastward of the Hudson towards Bennington, Vt., where the Americans had gathered a considerable quantity of supplies. At that time (August, 1777), General Stark, disgusted because he had not been made a Continental brigadier-general, had resigned his colonelcy, taken the leadership of the New Hampshire militia, with the stipulation that he was to have an independent command, and was at Bennington with part of a brigade. He had lately refused to obey a command of General Lincoln to join the main army opposing Burgoyne. It was a fortunate circumstance, for he did better service when Baum approached and began to cast up intrenchments (Aug. 14, 1777) in the township of Hoosick, N. Y., within about 5 miles of Bennington. Informed of that approach, Stark had sent expresses for Warner's shattered regiment, and for militia, and he soon gathered many fugitives from the disaster at Hubbardton. The 15th was rainy. Baum had sent back to Burgoyne for reinforcements, and Stark was waiting for the arrival of more expected troops from Berkshire. Warner joined Stark on the morning of the 15th —he and his men drenched during a night march in the rain. The 16th dawned bright and hot, and Stark proceeded to execute a plan of attack on Baum's intrenched position by dividing his force and making a simultaneous attack at different points. The frightened Indians with Baum dashed through the encircling lines of the Americans, and fled to the shelter of the woods. After a severe contest of two hours' duration, the ammunition of the Germans failed, and they attempted to break through the line of besiegers with bayonets and sabres. In that attempt Baum was slain and his veterans were made prisoners. At that moment Lieutenant-Colonel Breyman appeared with the jaded reinforcements which Burgoyne had sent, and Stark was joined by some fresh troops furnished by Warner. The cannon which had been taken from the Germans, were immediately turned upon Breyman's men. A fierce battle continued until sunset, when Breyman retreated, leaving all his artillery, and nearly all his wounded, behind. The Germans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, nearly 1,000 men. The Americans lost less than 100. On Aug. 19, 1891, a monument commemorating the victory was dedicated at Bennington. It is a shaft of magnesian limestone, 308 feet high—the highest battle-monument in the world; and near the city the national government has since established a military post. See ETHAN ALLEN, FORT.

Benson, EGBERT, jurist; born in New York City, June 21, 1746; was graduated at King's College (now Columbia University) in 1765; took an active part in political events preliminary to the war for independence; was a member of the Committee of Safety, and, in 1777, was appointed the first attorney-general of the State of New York. He was also a member of the first State legislature. He was a member of the Continental Congress from 1784 to 1789, and of the new Congress from 1789 to 1793, also from 1813 to 1815. From 1789 to 1802, he was a regent of the New York University, judge of the Supreme Court of New York (1794–1801), and of the United States Circuit Court. He was the first president of the New York Historical Society. Judge Benson was the author of a *Vindication of the Captors of Major André*, and a *Memoir on Dutch Names of Places*. He died in Jamaica, Long Island, Aug. 24, 1833.

Bentley, CHARLES EUGENE, clergyman; born in Warner's, N. Y., April 30 1841; became a Baptist minister, chairman of the State Prohibition Convention in 1864, and subsequently candidate for various offices. In 1896 he was the Presidential candidate of the Liberty party.

Benton, JAMES GILCHRIST, military officer; born in Lebanon, N. H., Sept. 15, 1820; was graduated at West Point Academy in 1842; served continuously in the ordnance department of the army, and as a result of his experiments made many inventions, for none of which did he take out a patent, as he held that having been educated by the government it was entitled to benefit in every way by his time and talent. He published *A Course of Instruction in Ordnance and Gunnery*. He died in Springfield, Mass., Aug. 23, 1881.

Benton, THOMAS HART, statesman; born near Hillsboro, N. C., March 14, 1782. Before finishing his studies at Chapel Hill University, North Carolina, he removed to Tennessee, studied law, and obtained great eminence in his profession. In the legislature of that State he procured the enactment of a law giving to slaves the benefit of a jury trial, and also succeeded in having a law passed which reformed the judicial system of the State. He had been on intimate terms with General Jackson at Nashville (1813), when a quarrel ensued, and in a personal encounter in that town with deadly weapons both parties gave and received severe wounds. He was colonel of a Tennessee regiment from December, 1812, to April, 1813, and lieutenant-colonel in the regular army from 1813 to 1815. Removing to St. Louis in 1813, he established the *Missouri Inquirer* there, and practised his profession. He took an

THOMAS HART BENTON.

active part in favoring the admission of Missouri as a State of the Union, and was one of its first representatives in the United States Senate, which post he held for thirty consecutive years, where he was ever the peculiar exponent and guardian of "The West." He was an early and untiring advocate of a railway from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean. He warmly opposed the repeal of the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*) in 1854. His free-labor sentiments caused his defeat as a candidate for the Senate by the ultra-slavery men of his party in 1850, and in 1852 he was elected to the House of Representatives. By a combination of his old opponents with the AMERICAN PARTY (*q. v.*), he was defeated in 1854, and failed of an election for governor in 1856. He had then begun to devote himself to literary pursuits; and he completed his *Thirty Years' View* of the United States Senate in 1854. He prepared an *Abridgment of the Debates of Congress*, from 1789 to 1856, in 16 volumes 8vo. They contain a complete political history of the

country during that period, so far as the national legislature is concerned. He died in Washington, D. C., April 10, 1858.

The Annexation of Texas.—On May 16, 17, and 20, 1844, Senator Benton delivered a remarkable and characteristic speech in the debate, while the Senate was in secret session, on the ratification of the treaty for the annexation of Texas. He had vigorously opposed the measure, and on the 13th offered the following resolutions, in support of which his great speech was delivered:

1. That the ratification of the treaty would be the adoption of the Texan war with Mexico, and would devolve its conclusion upon the United States.

2. That the treaty-making power does not extend to the power of making war, and that the President and Senate have no right to make war, either by declaration or adoption.

3. That Texas ought to be reunited to the American Union, as soon as it can be done with the consent of a majority of the people of the United States and of Texas, and when Mexico shall either consent to the same, or acknowledge the independence of Texas, or cease to prosecute the war against her (the armistice having expired) on a scale commensurate to the conquest of the country.

The following is an abstract of the speech:

The President upon our call sends us a map to show the Senate the boundaries of the country he proposes to annex. This memoir is explicit in presenting the Rio Grande del Norte in its whole extent as a boundary of the Republic of Texas, and that in conformity to the law of the Texan Congress establishing its boundaries. The boundaries on the map conform to those in the memoir; each takes for the western limit the Rio Grande from head to mouth: and a law of the Texan Congress is copied into the margin of the map, to show the legal, and the actual, boundaries at the same time. From all this it results that the treaty before us, besides the incorporation of Texas proper, also incorporates into our Union the left bank of the Rio Grande, in its whole extent, from its head spring in the Sierra Verde, near the South Pass in the Rocky Mountains, to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, 4° south of New Orleans, in lat. 26°. It is a "grand and solitary river," almost without affluents or tributaries. Its source is in the region of eternal snow; its outlet in the clime of eternal flowers. Its direct course is 1,200 miles; its actual run about 2,000 miles. This immense river, second on our continent to the Mississippi only, and but little inferior to it in length, is proposed to be added in the whole extent of its left bank to the American Union; and that by virtue of a treaty for the reannexation of Texas. Now, the real Texas, which we acquired by the treaty of 1803, and flung away by the treaty of 1819, never approached the Rio Grande except near its mouth; while the whole upper part was settled by the Spaniards, and a great part of it in the year 1694—nearly 100 years before La Salle first saw Texas. All this upper part was then formed into provinces, on both sides of the river, and has remained under Spanish or Mexican authority ever since. These former provinces of the Mexican viceroyalty, now departments of the Mexican Republic, lying on both sides of the Rio Grande from its head to its mouth, we now propose to incorporate, so far as they lie on the left bank of the river, into our Union, by virtue of a treaty of reannexation with Texas. Let us pause and look at our new and important proposed acquisitions in this quarter. First, there is the department, formerly the province, of New Mexico, lying on both sides of the river from its headspring to near the Paso del Norte—that is to say, half down the river. This department is studded with towns and villages—is populated—well cultivated and covered with flocks and herds. On its left bank (for I only speak of the part which we propose to reannex) is, first, the frontier village Taos, 3,000 souls, and where the custom-house is kept at which the Missouri caravans enter their goods. Then comes Santa Fé, the capital, 4,000 souls; then Albuquerque, 6,000 souls; then some scores of other towns and villages, all more or less populated, and surrounded by flocks and fields. Then come the departments of Chihuahua, Coahuila, and Tamaulipas, without settlements on the left bank of the river, but occupying the right bank, and commanding the left. All this—being part—

of four Mexican departments—now under Mexican governors and governments, is permanently reannexed to this Union, if this treaty is ratified; and is actually reannexed from the moment of the signature of the treaty, according to the President's last message, to remain so until the acquisition is rejected by rejecting the treaty. The one-half of the department of New Mexico, with its capital, becomes a territory of the United States; an angle of Chihuahua, at the Paso del Norte, famous for its wine, also becomes ours; a part of the department of Coahuila, not populated on the left bank, which we take, but commanded from the right bank by Mexican authorities; the same of Tamaulipas, the ancient Nuevo San Tander (New St. Andrew), and which covers both sides of Mexico, 2,000 miles long and some hundred miles up, and all the left bank of which is in the power and possession of Mexico. These, in addition to the old Texas, these parts of four states, these towns and villages, these people and territory, these flocks and herds, this slice of the Republic of Mexico, 2,000 miles long and some hundred broad, all this our President has cut off from its mother empire, and presents to us, and declares it is ours till the Senate rejects it. He calls it Texas; and the cutting off he calls reannexation. Humboldt calls it New Mexico, Chihuahua, Coahuila, and Nuevo San Tander (now Tamaulipas); and the civilized world may qualify this reannexation by the application of some odious and terrible epithet. Demosthenes advised the people of Athens not to take, but to retake a certain city; and in that *re* lay the virtue which saved that act from the character of spoliation and robbery. Will it be equally potent with us? And will the *re* prefixed to the annexation legitimate the seizure of 2,000 miles of a neighbor's dominion, with whom we have treaties of peace, and friendship, and commerce? Will it legitimate this seizure, made by virtue of a treaty with Texas, when no Texan force—witness the disastrous expeditions to Mier and to Santa Fé—have been seen near it without being killed or taken, to the last man?

The treaty, in all that relates to the boundary of the Rio Grande, is an act of unparalleled outrage on Mexico. It is the seizure of 2,000 miles of her territory without a word of explanation with her, and by virtue of a treaty with Texas, to which she is no party. Our Secretary of State (Mr. Calhoun), in his letter to the United States *chargé* in Mexico, and seven days after the treaty was signed, and after the Mexican minister had withdrawn from our seat of government, shows full well that he was conscious of the enormity of the outrage, knew it was war, and proffered volunteer apologies to avert the consequences which he knew he had provoked.

The President, in his special message of Wednesday last, informs us that we have acquired a title to the ceded territories by his signatures to the treaty, wanting only the action of the Senate to perfect it; and that, in the mean time, he will protect it from invasion, and for that purpose has detached all the disposable portions of the army and navy to the scene of action. This is a caper about equal to the mad freaks with which the unfortunate Emperor Paul of Russia was accustomed to astonish Europe about forty years ago. By this declaration the 30,000 Mexicans in the left half of the valley of the Rio del Norte are our citizens, and standing, in the language of the President's message, in a hostile attitude towards us, and subject to be repelled as invaders. Taos, the seat of the custom-house, where our caravans enter their goods, is ours; Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, is ours; Governor Armijo is our governor, and subject to be tried for treason if he does not submit to us; twenty Mexican towns and villages are ours; and their peaceful inhabitants, cultivating their fields and tending their flocks, are suddenly converted, by a stroke of the President's pen, into American citizens, or American rebels. This is too bad; and, instead of making themselves party to its enormities, as the President invites them to do, I think rather that it is the duty of the Senate to wash its hands of all this part of the transaction, by a special disapprobation. The Senate is the constitutional adviser of the President, and has the right, if not the duty, to give him advice when the occasion requires it. I, therefore, propose, as an additional resolution, applicable to the Rio del Norte boundary only, the one which I will read and send to the secretary's table—stamping as a spoliation this

seizure of Mexican territory, and on which, at the proper time, I shall ask the vote of the Senate:

"Resolved, that the incorporation of the left bank of the Rio del Norte into the American Union, by virtue of a treaty with Texas, comprehending, as the said incorporation would do, a part of the Mexican departments of New Mexico, Chihuahua, Coahuila, and Tamaulipas, would be an act of direct aggression on Mexico; for all the consequences of which the United States would stand responsible."

Bentonville, BATTLE OF. After the defeat of Hardee at Averasboro, Sherman believed he would meet with no more serious opposition in his march to Goldsboro. He issued orders accordingly. This sense of security proved almost fatal to Sherman's army, for at that moment, Johnston, who had come down from Smithfield, N. C., on a rapid but stealthy march, under cover of night, was hovering near in full force. He found the Nationals in a favorable position for him to attack them. Gen. J. C. Davis's corps was encamped (March 18, 1865) on the Goldsboro road, at a point where it was crossed by one from Clinton to Smithfield. Two divisions of Williams's were encamped 10 or 12 miles in the rear of this, in charge of Slocum's wagon-trains. The remainder of the forces were scattered to the south and east, in fancied security. On the morning of the 16th, Sherman left Slocum, nearest the Confederates, to join Howard's troops, which were scattered and moving on over the wretched, muddy road. On March 19, Sherman, while on his way to Howard, heard cannonading on his left wing, but did not think there was anything serious in it. It proved, however, to be a complete surprise. The Confederates, in overwhelming numbers, were found pressing Slocum. A very severe battle ensued, in a densely wooded swamp, dark and wet and dismal. In this encounter, Gen. J. C. Davis conducted much of the battle with great skill and courage, continually cheering his men with assurances of victory. Johnston had assured his men that he was confident of victory, and the troops on both sides fought desperately. Davis had formed General Fearing's brigade to the left and hurled them upon the flank of the Confederates. The latter were staggered and paralyzed by this unexpected and stunning blow from a force hitherto unseen by them, for Fearing's troops were in reserve. They reeled and fell back in amazement, and the attack was not renewed on that part of the field for more than an hour afterwards. The army was saved. The young general (Fearing) was disabled by a bullet, and hundreds of his brigade, dead and wounded, strewed the field of conflict. Davis re-formed the disordered left and centre of his line in open fields half a mile in the rear of the old line. The artillery was moved to a commanding knoll, and Kilpatrick massed his cavalry on the left. Meanwhile an attack upon Morgan's division of the 14th Corps had been very severe and unceasing. The National forces received six distinct assaults by the combined troops of Hardee, Hoke, and Cheatham, under the immediate command of General Johnston, without yielding an inch of ground, and all the while doing much execution on the Confederate ranks, especially with the artillery. With darkness this conflict, known as the battle of Bentonville, ended. It was one of the most notable battles of the Civil War. The main forces of the Union and of its enemies were then concentrating at one point for a desperate last struggle—Sherman and Johnston in North Carolina, and Grant and Lee in Virginia. Had Johnston won at that time the consequence probably would have been the loss of the whole of Sherman's army and the quick and fatal dispersion or capture of Grant's before Petersburg and Richmond. On the night after the battle reinforcements came to the left of the Nationals. The Confederates prepared for another onset, but when Johnston heard of the actual connection of three National armies in the vicinity of Goldsboro, he perceived that all chance for success against Sherman had vanished. There had been hard fighting all day (March 20, 1865), and that night, after having his only line of retreat severely menaced by a flank movement under General Mower, Johnston withdrew and went towards Smithfield in such haste that he left his pickets, wounded in hospitals, and dead behind. The aggregate loss of the Nationals near Bentonville was 1,648. The loss of the Confederates was never re-

ported. The Nationals captured 1,625 of their men, and buried 267 of their dead.

Bergh, HENRY, founder of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals; was born in New York City, May 8, 1820; was educated at Columbia College, and indulged in literary labors for a while, writing a drama and some poems. In 1863 he was secretary of legation to Russia, and acting vice-consul there. He acquired lasting fame over the civilized world for his untiring and brave labors in behalf of abused dumb creatures. These philanthropic efforts absorbed his attention for many years, and elicited the praise of all good men and women. A society for carrying out his benevolent plan was incorporated by the legislature of New York in 1866, and this example was followed in nearly all of the States and Territories of the Union and in Canada. He died in New York, March 12, 1888.

Bering (now preferred to the form **Behring**), VITUS, Danish navigator; born at Horsen, in Jutland, in 1680. In his youth he made several voyages to the East and West Indies; entered the Russian navy, and served with distinction against the Swedes; and in 1725 commanded a scientific expedition to the Sea of Kamtchatka. He ascertained that Asia and America were separated by water—a strait which now bears his name. This problem Peter the Great had been very desirous of having solved. Bering was appointed captain commandant in 1732, and in 1741 set out on a second voyage to the same region, when he discovered a part of the North American continent supposed to have been New Norfolk. He and his crew, being disabled by sickness, attempted to return to Kamtchatka, but were wrecked on an island that now bears his name, where Bering died Dec. 8, 1741. His discoveries were the foundation of the claim of Russia to a large region in the far northwest of the American continent. See ALASKA.

Bering Sea. In 1725 Capt. Vitus Bering, a Danish navigator in the service of Peter the Great, discovered the sea which bears his name, and in 1741 he made an imperfect exploration of a portion of the Alaskan coast. By virtue of these discoveries, the Emperor Paul of Russia, in 1799, assumed the sovereignty over the American coast as far south as lat. 55°, and formally annexed that part of the continent to the Russian domains. In 1867 Russian America was purchased by the United States government for $7,200,000. The only wealth of the country known at that time was its fur-producing animals, particularly the fur-seals of the coasts and islands, and it was for this mainly that the purchase was made. The officials who conducted the transaction were not mistaken in their estimates of the revenue to be derived from this source, for during the twenty years which followed the seal-fisheries paid into the national treasury a rental which exceeded the purchase-price of the territory by $6,350,000. That Bering Sea, with its islands, was the exclusive property of Russia for the sixty-eight years of her domination in Alaska had never been questioned, and that the United States, by purchase, succeeded to the same rights of possession no one could, it would be supposed, deny. About 1886, however, some ship-owners in British Columbia began to encroach upon these rights by sending vessels into the sea to intercept the seals as they made their annual migration to their breeding-grounds on the Pribyloff Islands. This unlawful poaching and the unregulated pelagic sealing were carried on to such an extent that in 1890 the Canadian intruders secured 20,000 skins. As very many of the seals thus taken were females, and their young were left to perish for want of sustenance, the actual number destroyed was far in excess of the number of skins, and the extinction of the entire species was threatened. At this juncture a United States revenue-cutter captured one of the poaching vessels. The seizure became at once the subject of correspondence between the British government and the State Department at Washington. Secretary Blaine urged that illicit sealing was a pursuit *contra bonos mores*, against international comity; and he argued against the claim of Lord Salisbury, who had asserted that Bering Sea could not be *mare clausum* under any circumstances. The British premier declined to recognize the claims of the United States, although he expressed regret at the "wanton destruction of a valuable industry," and asked that the right of the United States to

seize the Canadian vessels be submitted to a court of arbitration. While this correspondence was going on the poachers continued their depredations, and the number of seals was so materially reduced that in 1891 not more than one-fourth of the usual number of pelts were taken by the legally authorized sealers. An agreement was finally entered into to submit the matter to a court of arbitration, composed of commissioners selected by the two governments. The questions at issue to be decided by this court were as follows:

1. What exclusive jurisdiction in Bering Sea did Russia exercise prior to the cession of Alaska?

2. To what extent was this jurisdiction, especially as regarded the seal fisheries, recognized by Great Britain?

3. Was the Bering Sea included in the phrase "Pacific Ocean" in the Anglo-Russian treaty of 1825; and what rights did Russia exercise in the Bering Sea after the treaty?

4. Did not all the Russian rights in the fisheries east of the water boundary pass to the United States when the treaty was ratified by which she acquired possession of the territory of Alaska?

5. What right of protection of property has the United States in the seals frequenting United States islands, when found outside the ordinary 3-mile limit?

Pending the decision of the case by arbitration, an agreement was entered into between the two governments, June 15, 1891, providing:

1. That Great Britain shall use her best efforts to prohibit sealing by her subjects in Bering Sea until May, 1892.

2. That the United States shall limit the number of seals to be taken by the North American Commercial Company to 7,500 per year, and shall not permit more to be taken previous to the date above given.

3. That offending vessels outside the territorial limits of the United States may be seized by either of the contracting parties; and,

4. That British agents may visit or remain on the islands during the present season to make such observations as may be necessary for the proper presentation of the case to the court of arbitration.

Expert agents were appointed by each government to visit the localities under dispute, and make a thorough investigation of the material facts. A treaty was signed at Washington, Feb. 29, 1892, providing for the settlement by arbitration of the vexed seal question. The treaty was ratified in London, and the arbitrators met in Paris; they were Lord Hannen, Sir John Thompson, Justice Harlan, United States Senator Morgan, Baron de Courcelles, M. Gregero Gram, and Marquis Visconti Venosta. The decision of the tribunal was rendered Aug. 15, 1893. The findings of the arbitrators were: Russia never claimed exclusive rights; Great Britain had not conceded any claim of Russia to exclusive jurisdiction; Bering Sea was included in the *Pacific Ocean* in the treaty of 1825; all Russian rights passed to the United States; the United States have no rights when seals are outside the 3-mile limit. Restrictive regulations were also adopted: proclaiming a closed season from May 1 to July 31 in Bering Sea and the North Pacific; establishing a protected zone within 60 miles of the Pribyloff Islands; forbidding steam-vessels, use of nets, fire-arms, and explosives. The award was regarded as a compromise, in which the United States was technically defeated, but acquired substantial advantages in the regulations. The complaints came mainly from Canada. See BERING SEA ARBITRATION.

In 1894, the year following the signing of this treaty, more seals were slaughtered by poachers than ever before. The United States again asked England to interfere against the Canadian poachers, but that country refused to act unless the United States should pay Great Britain $500,000 in discharge of all claims for damages resulting from alleged illegal seizures of British vessels in Bering Sea. The United States denied the justice of this claim, but after another year of seal slaughter, agreed to submit the claim to arbitration. In July, 1896, Judge G. E. King, of Canada, and Judge W. E. Putnam, of the United States, were chosen commissioners to settle the matter.

On Jan. 14, 1898, President McKinley submitted to Congress the report and awards of the commission, the last aggregating $473,151 in favor of Great Britain, and on June 14 Congress appropriated

that amount. In the mean time (June, 1896) President Cleveland appointed a commission to make an exhaustive study of the fur-seal question, and on its report (1897) President McKinley appointed a new commission to devise protection for the seals. Then efforts were made to induce Great Britain to consent to an international conference, but Canada objected to the representation of Russia and Japan, whom the United States had invited, and on this objection Great Britain declined. Subsequently the United States invited all interested nations to a conference separately. See ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION.

BERING SEA ARBITRATION

Bering Sea Arbitration. The United States stands distinguished among the nations as the foremost champion of international arbitration. Our ablest and wisest statesmen have recognized it as the best way of adjusting most questions of difference arising between governments, when the ordinary diplomatic methods fail. Such being the settled policy of the country, it would be unfortunate for the cause of peace and civilization in the world if that policy should be prejudiced in the United States for want of correct information or through partisan bias.

In 1893 JOHN WATSON FOSTER (*q. v.*) was appointed United States agent to the Bering Sea arbitration tribunal which met in Paris. After the conclusion of the arbitration he wrote the following paper:

The impression seems to prevail with many of our people that the Bering Sea arbitration was unwisely entered upon, that it was fruitless in its results to us, and that the responsibility for the failure is chargeable to the administration which agreed to it. Every one of these conclusions is incorrect, and in the interest of the great cause of international arbitration their fallacy should be exposed.

It is well, in the first place, to examine the origin of the controversy. Alaska was ceded by Russia to the United States in 1867, and in 1870 the seal islands in Bering Sea were leased by the government to a private company, with the privilege of taking on the land a certain number of seals annually. Soon thereafter it became apparent that the seal herd was exposed to serious diminution by means of pelagic or open-sea hunting. As early as 1872 the attention of the government was called to this danger, and it was suggested that a revenue-cutter be sent to cruise in the vicinity of the passes of the Aleutian chain, through which the herd travelled on its way to and from the seal islands, with a view of preventing such hunting. But Mr. Boutwell, Secretary of the Treasury, declined to act upon the suggestion, stating: "I do not see that the United States would have the jurisdiction or power to drive off parties going up there for that purpose, unless they made the attempt within a marine league of the shore." With the progress of time pelagic hunting increased along the Canadian and American coasts, with greater slaughter of the herd, and with occasional incursions into Bering Sea. There was gradually developed a contention that the principle laid down by Secretary Boutwell did not apply to Bering Sea, because Russia had claimed and enforced exclusive jurisdiction over all its waters, that it had been acquiesced in by the maritime nations, including Great Britain, and that all the rights of Russia therein passed to the United States by the cession. The act of Congress of 1868 (Section 1,956) made it unlawful to kill seals "within the limits of Alaska Territory or *in the waters thereof*," and it was claimed that the waters of Alaska embraced all that portion of Bering Sea east of the line designated in the Russian treaty of cession. Under the foregoing construction of the treaty and the statute, the first seizure of British vessels in Bering Sea took place under instructions of the Secretary of the Treasury by the revenue vessels in 1886, and other seizures followed in 1887. Suits were instituted in the federal court at Sitka under the act cited, and the vessels were condemned. The judge, whose tenure of office under the practice in vogue as to that Territory was limited to the political administration which appointed

him, following the line of argument submitted by the district attorney in a brief prepared in the office of the Attorney-General, held that "all the waters within the boundary set forth in the treaty . . . are to be considered as comprised within the waters of Alaska, and all the penalties prescribed by law . . . must therefore attach within those limits." He further held that "as a matter of international law, it makes no difference that the accused parties may be subjects of Great Britain. Russia had claimed and exercised jurisdiction over all that portion of Bering Sea . . . and that claim had been tacitly recognized and acquiesced in by the other maritime powers of the world."

The seizure and condemnation of the British vessels were followed by an attempt to secure a more precise and strict definition of "the waters of Alaska" by congressional legislation. A lengthy investigation was had by a committee of the House of Representatives in 1888; and in January, 1889, a report was made by Mr. Dunn, of Arkansas, chairman of the committee, fully sustaining the view taken by the Attorney-General and the federal judge in Alaska, and submitting a bill which declared "that Section 1,956 of the Revised Statutes of the United States was intended to include and apply to, and is hereby declared to include and apply to, all waters of Bering Sea in Alaska embraced within the boundary lines" of the treaty with Russia. This bill was passed by the House, but in the Senate it was sent to the committee on foreign relations, and that committee recommended that the clause above quoted be disagreed to; and the chairman, Mr. Sherman, in support of the recommendation, stated that the proposed legislation "involved serious matters of international law . . . and ought to be disagreed to and abandoned, and considered more carefully hereafter." Subsequently, by virtue of a conference report, an act was passed declaring Section 1,956 to include and apply "to all the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea."

The seizure and condemnation of vessels, as stated, constitute the origin and foundation of the complaint of the British government, and of the lengthy correspondence and negotiations which resulted in the arbitration at Paris. These seizures were the act of the administration of President Cleveland, and had the endorsement of the executive, politico-judicial, and legislative departments of that administration. In so far as the views of the opposing political party may be inferred from the attitude of Secretary Boutwell and Senator Sherman, they were against the legality or wisdom of the policy.

The complaint of Great Britain in 1887 was followed by a diplomatic correspondence, in which Secretary Bayard, without discussing or yielding the grounds upon which the seizures had been made, proposed an international arrangement for the protection of the seals from extermination. With this proposition pending, and with all the questions arising out of the seizures unsettled, the executive government of the United States passed into the hands of President Harrison. Mr. Blaine, on assuming the duties of Secretary of State, sought to carry into effect the proposition of his predecessor for an international agreement. He found that few of the governments approached had shown any interest in the proposition, but early in the administration he pressed the subject upon the attention of Great Britain, and as soon as possible secured a joint conference at Washington with the British and Russian ministers. After prolonged interviews the conference proved a failure, as Great Britain was unwilling to enter into any international agreement which the two other interested powers felt was at all adequate to protect the seals from extermination.

The measure which Secretary Bayard had initiated for the settlement of the questions arising out of the seizure of British vessels having proved impossible of realization, there seemed no other alternative but to defend the action of the previous administration; and thereupon followed the notable diplomatic correspondence between Mr. Blaine and Lord Salisbury, in which the former sought with all his recognized forensic skill to defend the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in ordering the seizures and, as far as he felt it possible to do so, to sustain the correctness in international law of the attitude of the Attorney-General and the judge of the federal court of

Alaska. In no part of that statesman's career did his devotion to his country more conspicuously rise above partisanship than in that correspondence. It is doubtful if any living American could have made a more brilliant or effective defence of the action of his government, and whatever fallacies exist in his argument are chargeable to the previous administration which had occasioned the controversy and marked out the line of defence.

The correspondence showed the two governments in hopeless disagreement. Three courses were open to President Harrison, and one of them must be chosen without further delay: First, he could abandon the claim of exclusive jurisdiction over Bering Sea or protection of the seals beyond the 3-mile limit, recede from the action of his predecessor as to seizure of British vessels, and pay the damages claimed therefor. Such a course would have met with the general disapproval of the nation, and would have been denounced by his political opponents as a base betrayal of the country's interests. Second, he could have rejected the arguments and protests of the British government, and continued the policy initiated by his predecessor in the seizure of all British vessels engaged in pelagic sealing in Bering Sea. But this course had already been proposed to President Cleveland, and decided to be improper. The Hon. E. J. Phelps who, as minister to Great Britain, had conducted the negotiations with Lord Salisbury growing out of the seizures of 1886 and 1887, in a lengthy despatch to Secretary Bayard, reviewing the conduct of Canada which had prevented an adjustment once accepted by Lord Salisbury, made the following recommendation: "Under these circumstances, the government of the United States must, in my opinion, either submit to have these valuable fisheries destroyed, or must take measures to prevent their destruction by capturing the vessels employed in it. Between these two alternatives it does not appear to me there should be the slightest hesitation. . . . I earnestly recommend, therefore, that the vessels that have been seized while engaged in this business be firmly held, and that measures be taken to capture and hold every one hereafter found concerned in it. . . . There need be no fear that a resolute stand on this subject will at once put an end to the mischief complained of." But this recommendation of Mr. Phelps was not approved by Mr. Bayard, who was unwilling to adopt a course which might bring about a rupture with Great Britain, the probable outcome of which would have been an armed conflict. In view of this decision and the state of public sentiment, with a prevailing opinion in a large part of the press and with public men that the attitude of the government was legally unsound, and that the interests involved did not, under the circumstances stated, justify the hazard of a great war between these two English-speaking nations, the adoption of this second alternative by President Harrison would have been the height of madness. The only remaining alternative was arbitration. President Harrison felt that if we could commit to an international tribunal the far greater interests and principles involved in the *Alabama* claims, it would be the part of wisdom to adopt the same course as to the pending questions of difference, and there can be no doubt that the sober judgment of the country confirms his action.

If, therefore, the Paris arbitration was unwise in any of its features, it must have been in the manner of submission of the questions to the tribunal. But in this respect, also, the conduct of President Harrison was greatly restricted by the action of his predecessor. He was required to formulate for the decision of the tribunal the contentions upon which the seizures were made, and the first four points embraced in Article VI. of the treaty will be found to cover accurately the grounds upon which the Attorney-General in 1887 asked for, and the federal judge based, the condemnation of the British vessels. It is a singular incident that when the case of the United States came to be prepared and the Russian archives were examined, what had been assumed in the legal proceedings to be historical facts could scarcely be substantiated by a single official document. It is also notable that the only additional question introduced in the treaty provision for submission to the tribunal—that embraced in the fifth point, to wit, the right of protection or property in the seals, and which in

the judgment of the counsel of the United States became the leading, if not the only, defence of the seizures—was not advanced in the legal proceedings of 1887, and was not mooted until a late stage of Mr. Blaine's controversy with Lord Salisbury. The chief credit for the development of this point is due to Mr. Tracy, Secretary of the Navy, who submitted a paper of rare legal ability on the subject to the President. The treaty after having undergone the careful scrutiny of the President and Hon. E. J. Phelps, whose advice had been sought by the President, was submitted to the Senate and approved by that body without a single dissenting voice, so far as is known. If the conduct of the President, in the management of the controversy created by his predecessor, had not been in the judgment of the country wise and patriotic, or if the provisions of the treaty had not been properly framed, it would scarcely have escaped the attention of his political opponents in the Senate.

Hence, the only remaining criticism which might be advanced against the arbitration must relate to the management of the case before the tribunal. But in this respect also it must be recognized that the President's action was circumspect and free from all partisanship. In naming the arbitrators on the part of the United States, he chose, with the cordial approval of the Chief-Justice and his associates, Mr. Justice Harlan, of the Supreme Court, as senior American member of the tribunal. In filling the second place he selected Senator Morgan, the recognized leader of all international questions in the Senate of the party whose officials had originated the subject-matter of arbitration. Hon. E. J. Phelps, President Cleveland's minister in London, an experienced diplomatist, and a lawyer of national repute, had been consulted by the President several months before the treaty had been agreed upon, and when the case came to be prepared he was named as senior counsel. With him was associated James C. Carter, of New York, the recognized leader of the American bar; and before the tribunal was organized Frederic R. Coudert, an accomplished French scholar and a prominent jurist, was added to the list. These three gentlemen were the political friends of Mr. Cleveland. With them was joined a single party friend of President Harrison, H. W. Blodgett, for many years a distinguished judge of the Federal Court. Senator Morgan, in a subsequent letter, wrote: "Our party was and is responsible for using the means that were employed both for the raising and the settlement of these questions, and it was a just measure of responsibility that Mr. Harrison devolved upon us when, out of a body of arbitrators and counsel, and Mr. Secretary Foster, the agent, selected by him—seven in all—he selected four Democrats and three Republicans." As to the manner in which these gentlemen discharged their trust, we have the following testimony of Mr. Justice Harlan, in a public address: "I may say that no government was ever represented upon any occasion where its interests were involved with more fidelity, with more industry, and with greater ability than was the United States by its agent and counsel. . . . If more was not obtained is was solely because a majority of that tribunal . . . did not see their way to grant more."

On five points submitted to the tribunal, embracing the historical and legal questions, the decision was unfavorable to the United States. While the action of the government in making the seizures was based on the weakest ground of our defence, which proved untenable, it cannot be doubted that the motives which actuated its conduct were patriotic and praiseworthy. But had our effort to save the seals from destruction been from the outset based upon a right of protection and property in them, our case before the tribunal would have been much stronger and the decision might have been different. Nevertheless, it cannot be justly claimed that the arbitration was fruitless in its results for us. It is no small matter that a question which threatened a rupture of our peaceful relations with Great Britain was adjusted by a resort to the arbitrament of reason and not of force. The Alaskan seal herd is of great value to us and to the world, and it is the duty of our government to be vigilant in protecting it from destruction; but the legal issues involved in our controversy with Great Britain regarding them did not seem to justify the hazard of an armed

conflict, and it was a great gain to us that the controversy was peacefully settled without national dishonor.

The decision of the tribunal was adverse to the United States on the legal points in dispute, but the award contained an important provision for international regulations, which were intended by the tribunal to be a protection to the seals, and which in the judgment of the majority of that body would in practice prove an adequate protection. The agent and counsel of the United States contended that no regulations would be a certain protection of the herd which did not prohibit all pelagic sealing, and the American arbitrators voted for such prohibition, and sustained their votes by very able and cogent opinions; but the majority of the tribunal took a different view of the subject. The regulations adopted were opposed both by the American and Canadian arbitrators. When first published they were accepted by all the Americans who participated in the arbitration as a decided triumph for the United States, and were regarded by the Canadian sealers as a serious menace, if not a death-blow, to their interests. If they are carefully examined they will be found to be more favorable to the United States than the regulations which Mr. Bayard proposed to Lord Salisbury as a settlement of the question, or which Mr. Blaine offered to Sir Julian Pauncefote. If, therefore, we obtained more from the tribunal than our government proposed to accept from Great Britain, the arbitration cannot justly be characterized as fruitless in its results for us. The adequacy of the regulations cannot be properly judged, because they have not yet been put in force in their true spirit and intent. This will not be done until they are also made to apply to the Russian waters, and until more stringent rules for their enforcement are adopted. It has been a source of disappointment to many who have taken an interest in the preservation of the seals that these rules have been so lax and so imperfectly observed. The obstruction in these respects is now, as it has been from the beginning, the selfish and inhuman conduct of Canada.

As it has been shown by the foregoing review that the Paris arbitration was not unwisely entered upon, that it was not altogether fruitless in its results for us, and that the administration which agreed to it cannot be held culpable for the manner of its submission or management. But it will naturally be expected that something be said concerning the question of damages, a subject which was not settled by the award. In Article VIII. of the treaty it was expressly stipulated that "the question of liability of each for the injuries alleged to have been sustained by the other" should not be embraced in the arbitration, but should "be the subject of future negotiation." In the discussion following the adjournment of the tribunal, the fact seems to have been lost sight of that the United States preferred serious claims for damages against Great Britain on account of the injuries done by British pelagic sealers to the Alaskan seal herd, and that President Harrison proposed that this question of damages should, together with the British claims for seizure of vessels, be submitted to the tribunal. It was because Great Britain refused to consent to arbitrate this claim that the whole subject was omitted. The award of the tribunal was in effect that in certain waters, and at certain times, pelagic sealing is improper and should not be permitted. How far the claim of the United States subsists for injuries in the past sustained by the seal herd in those times and waters is one of the questions to be determined by the "future negotiations" contemplated in the treaty; and prominent persons well informed as to the controversy contend that it is still a vital question.

While the liability for damages was not within the jurisdiction of the tribunal, it is generally admitted that the effect of its decision was to fix upon the United States a certain measure of responsibility for damages on account of the seizures, which would have to be met through the "future negotiations." Without further investigation than the documentary evidence before the Paris tribunal, the sum of $425,000 was agreed upon between the Secretary of State and the British ambassador as a full satisfaction of the claims for the seizure of the British vessels, and the Congress of the United States was asked to make an

appropriation for that purpose. In the discussion which arose in the House of Representatives when the subject came before that body, it was most unfortunate that it should have assumed a partisan aspect. When certain members argued that the sum asked for was greatly in excess of the just and legal claims of the Canadian sealers, and that it was in direct conflict with the views of the agent and counsel of the United States before the tribunal, they were taunted with the charge that this obligation had been contracted by the administration of which they were supporters. The member of the committee on appropriations who had the measure in charge said: "This is not our foreign policy. We are paying a debt which you gentlemen gave us." Mr. McCreary, chairman of the committee on foreign affairs, in advocacy of the appropriation, used this language: "I regret that we have been placed in an attitude where we have to pay this amount; but the gentlemen on the other side of this House cannot claim that we caused the existing situation." How unwarranted were these assertions is shown in the foregoing review.

It may have been the wisest policy to vote the appropriation, but it was no breach of our international obligations not to approve of that sum; and it is not to the discredit of Congress that it exercised its judgment as to the action of the executive in agreeing to a settlement with Great Britain which altogether ignored the claim of the United States for damages to the seals by improper pelagic hunting, and the views of its own representatives before the tribunal as to the British claims. While a difference of views may properly exist between the executive and legislative departments upon these subordinate questions, no disposition has been entertained or shown by any portion of our government or people to evade our just obligations under the treaty. And the fact that the spirit of the award leads us to pay out of the national treasury a sum by way of damages, which at the most must be regarded as insignificant for a great nation, should certainly have no tendency to modify in the slightest degree our devotion to the great policy of international arbitration.

Berkeley, GEORGE, Bishop of Cloyne; born in Kilcrin, Kilkenny, Ireland, March 12, 1684; was educated at Trinity College, Dublin; became a Fellow there; and at an early age wrote on scientific subjects. Between 1710 and 1713 his two famous works appeared, in which he denies the existence of matter, and argues that it is not without the mind, but within it, and that that which is called matter is only an impression produced by divine power on the mind by the invariable laws of nature. On a tour in France he visited the French philosopher Malebranche, who became so excited by a discussion with Berkeley on the non-existence of matter that, being ill at the time, he died a few days afterwards. Miss Vanhomrigh (Swift's "Vanessa") bequeathed to Berkeley $20,000; and in 1728 his income was increased $5,500 a year by being made Dean of Derry. Berkeley conceived a plan for establishing a college in the Bermudas for the instruction of pastors for the colonial churches and missionaries for the Indians. He resigned his offices to become rector of the projected college at a salary of $500 a year. The House of Commons authorized the appropriation of a portion of the money to be obtained from the sale of lands in St. Kitt's (St. Christopher's), which had been ceded to England for the establishment of the institution. With these assurances Berkeley went to Newport, R. I. (1729), bought a farm and built a house, intending to invest the college funds, when received, in American lands, and then to make arrangements for a supply of pupils. He had just married, and brought his bride with him. The scheme for the college failed for lack of government co-operation after the death of the King, who favored it. In 1734 Berkeley was made Bishop of Cloyne, which place he held for almost twenty years. He gave to Yale College his estate in Rhode Island, known as "White Hall," and also 880 volumes for its library. He died in Oxford, Jan. 14, 1753. Pope ascribed to him "every virtue under the sun." It was in view of the establishment of the college that he wrote his famous lines *On the Prospect of Planting Arts and Learning in America*, in which occur these oft-quoted lines,

"Westward the course of empire takes its way;
The first four acts already past,
A fifth shall close the drama with the day;
Time's noblest offspring is the last."

Berkeley, Sir John, a proprietor of New Jersey; born in 1607; was in the military service of Charles I. when the King knighted him at Berwick on the Tweed. In the civil war that afterwards ensued, he bore a conspicuous part, and he remained in exile with the royal family many years. In 1653 Berkeley was placed at the head of the Duke of York's establishment; and two years before the Restoration (1660), of that of the Prince of Wales, who, when crowned king (Charles II.), raised Berkeley to the peerage as Baron Berkeley of Stratton, in the county of Somerset. On the Restoration he became one of the privy council, and late in 1699 he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. He was then one of the proprietors of New Jersey, and was not above suspicion of engaging in the corrupt practice of selling offices. Samuel Pepys, who was secretary of the Admiralty (1664), speaks of him in his *Diary* as "the most hot, fiery man in his discourse, without any cause," he ever saw. Lord Berkeley was appointed ambassador extraordinary to the Court of Versailles in 1675, and died Aug. 28, 1678. See Carteret, Sir George.

Berkeley, Sir William, colonial governor; born near London about 1610; was brother of Lord John Berkeley, one of the early English proprietors of New Jersey. Appointed governor of Virginia, he arrived there in February, 1642. Berkeley was a fine specimen of a young English courtier. He was then thirty-two years of age, well educated at Oxford, handsome in person, polished by foreign travel, and possessing exquisite taste in dress. He was one of the most accomplished cavaliers of the day. He adopted some salutary measures in Virginia which made him popular; and at his mansion at Green Spring, not far from Jamestown, he dispensed generous hospitality for many years. Berkeley was a stanch but not a bigoted royalist at first; and during the civil war in England he managed public affairs in Virginia with so much prudence that a greater proportion of the colonists were in sympathy with him.

In religious matters there was soon perceived the spirit of persecution in the character of the governor. The Puritans were then not only tolerated in Virginia, but had been invited to settle there. The civil war drew a line of clear demarcation between churchmen and non-conformists. A large majority of the people of Virginia were attached to the Church of England; so was the governor. In England the Puritans were identified with the republicans, and Berkeley thought it to be his duty to suppress them in his colony as enemies to royalty. So he first decreed that no Puritan minister should preach except in conformity to the rules of the Church of England; and, finally, all non-conformists were banished from Virginia. In the war with the Indians in 1644, in which Opechancanough (*q. v.*) led the savages, the governor behaved with promptness and efficiency, and soon crushed the invaders. Then the colonists had peace and prosperity for some years. In 1648 they numbered 20,000. "The cottages were filled with children, as the ports with ships and emigrants." The people were loyal to the King; and when the latter lost his head, and royalty was abolished in England, they opened wide their arms to receive the cavaliers (many of them of the gentry, nobility, and clergy of the realm) who fled in horror from the wrath of republicans. They brought refinement in manners and intellectual culture to Virginia, and strengthened the loyalty of the colonists. When the King was slain they recognized his exiled son as their sovereign, and Berkeley proclaimed him King of Virginia. Sir William administered the government under a commission sent by Charles from his place of exile (Breda, in Flanders).

Virginia was the last territory belonging to England that submitted to the government of the republicans on the downfall of monarchy. This persistent attachment to the Stuarts offended the republican Parliament, and they sent Sir George Ayscue with a strong fleet, early in the spring of 1652, to reduce the Virginians to submission. The fleet bore commissioners authorized to use harsh or conciliatory measures—to make a compromise, or to declare the freedom of the slaves of the royalists, put arms in their

hands, and make war. The commissioners were met with firmness by Berkeley. Astonished by the boldness of the governor and his adherents, they deemed it more prudent to compromise than to attempt coercion. The result was, the political freedom of the colonists was guaranteed. Berkeley regarding those whom the commissioners represented as usurpers, he would make no stipulations with them for himself, and he withdrew from the governorship and lived in retirement on his plantation at Green Spring until the restoration of monarchy in England in 1660, when the loyalty of the Virginians was not forgotten by the new monarch.

The people elected Richard Bennett governor; and he was succeeded by two others —Edward Diggs (1655) and Samuel Matthews (1656), the latter appointed by Oliver Cromwell. At his death (1660) the people elected Berkeley, but he refused to serve excepting under a royal commission, and he went to England to congratulate Charles II. on his restoration to the throne. Charles gave Berkeley a commission, and he returned to Virginia to execute his master's will with vigor. He enforced various oppressive laws, for he was less tolerant than when he was younger and politically weaker, and, with the cavaliers around him, he hated everything that marked the character of the Puritans. These cavaliers despised the "common people" of New England, and opposed the ideas of popular education. Berkeley wrote to his government in 1665, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing in Virginia, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought heresy and disobedience and sects into the world, and printing hath divulged them, and libels against the best government; God keep us from both!" Oppression of the people finally produced civil war in 1676, the events of which soured Berkeley, who had then grown old (see BACON, NATHANIEL); and after it was over, and he was firmly seated in power, he treated the principal abettors of the insurrection with harshness and cruelty. His King had proclaimed Bacon (the leader of the insurrection) a traitor, and sent an armament under Sir John Berry to assist in crushing the rebellion. This was the first time royal troops were sent to America to suppress the aspirations of the people for freedom. Feeling strong, Berkeley pursued the adherents of Bacon with malignant severity until twenty-two of them were hanged. The first martyr was Thomas Hanford, a gallant young native of Virginia. Standing before the governor, he boldly avowed his republicanism; and when sentenced to be hanged, he said, "I ask no favor but that I may be shot like a soldier, and not hanged like a dog." At the gallows he said, "Take notice that I die a loyal subject and a lover of my country." Edmund Cheeseman, when arraigned before the governor, was asked why he engaged in the wicked rebellion, and before he could answer his young wife stepped forward and said, "My provocations made my husband join in the cause for which Bacon contended; but for me, he had never done what he has done. Since what is done," she said, as she knelt before the governor, with her bowed head covered with her hands, "was done by my means, I am most guilty; let me bear the punishment; let me be hanged; let my husband be pardoned." The governor cried out, angrily, "Away with you!" The poor young wife swooned, and her husband was led to the gallows. When the brave Drummond was brought before the governor, Berkeley, with wicked satire, made a low bow and said, "You are very welcome; I am more glad to see you than any man in Virginia; you shall be hanged in half an hour." Drummond replied, with dignity, "I expect no mercy from you. I have followed the lead of my conscience, and done what I might to free my country from oppression." He was condemned at one o'clock and hanged at four; and his brave wife, Sarah, was denounced as a "traitor" and banished, with her children, to the wilderness, there to subsist on the bounty of friends. When these things were brought to the notice of the profligate monarch, even *he* was disgusted with Berkeley's cruelties, and said, "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country than I have taken for the murder of my father;" and Berkeley was ordered to desist. But he continued to fine and imprison the followers of Bacon until he was recalled in the spring of 1677, and went to England with the re-

turning fleet of Sir John Berry. The colonists fired great guns and lighted bonfires in token of their joy at his departure. In England his cruelties were severely censured, and he died (July 13, 1677) of grief and mortified pride.

Berlin Arbitration. See San Juan.

Berlin Decree, The. In 1803 England joined the Continental powers against Napoleon. England, offended because of the seizure of Hanover by the Prussians, at the instigation of Napoleon, made the act a pretext, in 1806, for employing against France a measure calculated to starve the empire. By Orders in Council (May 16) the whole coast of Europe from the Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, a distance of about 800 miles, was declared to be in a state of blockade, when, at the same time, the British navy could not spare vessels enough from other fields of service to enforce the blockade over a third of the prescribed coast. It was essentially a "paper blockade." The almost entire destruction of the French and Spanish fleets at Trafalgar, a few months before, had annihilated her rivals in the contest for the sovereignty of the seas, and she now resolved to control the trade of the world. Napoleon had dissolved the German Empire, prostrated Prussia at his feet, and, from the "Imperial Camp at Berlin," he issued (Nov. 21, 1806) the famous decree in which he declared the British Islands in a state of blockade; forbade all correspondence or trade with England; defined all articles of English manufacture or produce as contraband, and the property of all British subjects as lawful prize of war. He had scarcely a ship afloat when he made this decree. This was the beginning of what was afterwards called "the Continental System," commenced avowedly as a retaliatory measure, and designed, primarily, to injure, and, if possible, to destroy, the property of England. By another Order in Council (January, 1807) Great Britain restrained neutrals from engaging in the coasting-trade between one hostile port and another, a commerce hitherto allowed, with some slight exceptions. This was but the extension to all hostile ports of the blockade of the coast from the Elbe to Brest established by a former order. On Nov. 17, 1807, another British Order in Council was issued, which prohibited all neutral trade with France or her allies, unless through Great Britain. In retaliation for these orders Napoleon promulgated, Dec. 17, 1807, from his "Palace at Milan," a decree which extended and made more vigorous that issued at Berlin. It declared every vessel which should submit to be searched by British cruisers, or should pay any tax, duty, or license money to the British government, or should be found on the high seas or elsewhere bound to or from any British port, denationalized and forfeit. With their usual servility to the dictates of the conqueror, Spain and Holland issued similar decrees.

In March, 1810, information reached the President of the United States that the French minister for Foreign Affairs, in a letter to Minister Armstrong, had said that if England would revoke her blockade against France, the latter would revoke her "Berlin Decree." Minister Pinkney, in London, approached the British minister on the subject, and, to aid in the peaceful negotiations, Congress repealed the non-intercourse and non-importation laws on May 1, 1810. For these they substituted a law excluding both British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States. The law provided that, in case either Great Britain or France should revoke or so modify their acts before March 3, 1811, as not to violate the neutral commerce of the United States, and if the other nation should not, within three months thereafter, in like manner revoke or modify its edicts, the provisions of the non-intercourse and non-importation acts should, at the expiration of the three months, be revived against the nation so neglecting or refusing to comply. The French minister thereupon, on Aug. 5 following, officially declared that the Berlin and Milan decrees had been revoked, and would be inoperative after Nov. 1, it being understood that, in consequence of that revocation, the English should revoke the Orders in Council. Having faith in these declarations, the President issued a proclamation on Nov. 2, announcing this revocation of the French decrees and declaring the discontinuance, on the part of the United States, of all commercial restrictions in relation to France. But the French were playing false, and England suspected it, for she had many reasons for

doubting Gallic faith. So had the Americans, but still they were willing to trust France once again. They were deceived; the decrees were not revoked, and a later one, issued at Rambouillet, was only suspended. The English refused to rescind on the faith of only a letter by the French minister; and this attempt on the part of the Americans to secure peace and justice was futile. See EMBARGO ACT, FIRST; ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

Bermuda Hundred, OPERATIONS NEAR. General Butler had intrenched a greater portion of the Army of the James at Bermuda Hundred, at the junction of the James and Appomattox rivers, early in May, 1864, to co-operate with the Army of the Potomac, approaching from the north. His chief care was at first to prevent reinforcements being sent to Lee from Petersburg and the South. For this purpose Butler proceeded to destroy the railway between Petersburg and Richmond, and so to cut off direct communication between the Confederate capital and the South. When it was known that General Gillmore had withdrawn his troops from before Charleston to join Butler, Beauregard was ordered to hasten northward to confront the Army of the James. He had arrived at Petersburg, and was hourly reinforced. Some of these troops he massed in front of Butler, under Gen. D. H. Hill; and finally, on the morning of May 16, under cover of a dense fog, they attempted to turn Butler's right flank. A sharp conflict ensued between about 4,000 Nationals and 3,000 Confederates, which resulted in the retirement of Butler's forces within their intrenchments. For several days afterwards there was much skirmishing in front of Butler's lines, when he received orders to send nearly two-thirds of his effective force to the north side of the James to assist the Army of the Potomac, then contending with Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. Butler complied with the requisition, which deprived him of all power to make any further offensive movements. "The necessities of the Army of the Potomac," he said, "have bottled me up at Bermuda Hundred." This expression was afterwards used to his disadvantage. See BUTLER, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Bermudas, FIRST ENGLISH IN THE. Henry May, an English mariner, returning from a voyage to the West Indies in a French ship, was wrecked (Dec. 17, 1593) on one of the islands. He and his companions in distress remained there five months, when they rigged a small vessel of 18 tons from the material of the ship, put in thirteen live turtles for provisions, sailed to Newfoundland, and thence returned to England. These islands were named in honor of Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard, who was wrecked there in 1522. May was the first Englishman who set foot upon them. See SOMERS'S ISLANDS.

Bernard, SIR FRANCIS, colonial governor; born in Nettleham, Lincoln co., England, in 1714. In 1758 he was appointed governor of New Jersey; and in 1760 he was transferred to Massachusetts, where he supported all measures obnoxious to the colonists. After a stormy administration of nearly nine years Bernard was recalled, and created a baronet. Bernard was a friend of learning, and gave a part of his library to Harvard College. He had become so thoroughly unpopular that when he left Boston the bells were rung, cannon were fired, and "Liberty-tree" was hung with flags, in token of the joy of the people. He died in Aylesbury, England, June 16, 1779.

Bernard, SIMON, military officer; born in Dole, France, April 28, 1779; entered the French army during the Napoleonic wars; and came to the United States with Lafayette in 1824. While chief-engineer of the United States army he built Fort Monroe. He returned to France in 1830, and died in Paris, Nov. 5, 1836.

Berry, HIRAM GEORGE, military officer; born in Thomaston (now Rockland), Me., Aug. 27, 1824; was first a carpenter, then a navigator, and finally became a State legislator and mayor of Rockland. He was colonel of Maine volunteers in the battle of Bull Run; became brigadier-general in May, 1862; and was active in the Army of the Potomac throughout the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862 and until the battle of Chancellorsville (May 2, 1863), where he was killed. His brigade was especially distinguished in the battle of Fredericksburg, in December, 1862. In March, 1863, he was made major-general of volunteers, and was commanding a division in the 3d Corps when he fell.

Bertillon, ALPHONSE, anthropologist; born in Paris, France, in 1853; founded a new system of identification of criminals, by a series of measurements which gave marvellous results, while chief of the Bureau of Identification in the Prefecture of Police. The system is based on the assumption that the bones of the human body undergo no further change when an adult age is reached. In applying the system to a supposed criminal, accurate measurements are made of the head, ears, feet, middle fingers, extended forearms, height, breadth, and the trunk. These measurements, when placed upon a card, accompanied by a photograph of the subject, provide means said to be unfailing for recognizing the subject after several years have elapsed. This system has been introduced in the principal cities of the United States.

Bessemer Steel. During the last few years the United States has made a remarkable advance in the production and manufacture of iron and steel, and in no line has this progress been so marked as in the yield of Bessemer steel, that form made from pig-iron from which all the carbon has been removed. The process was invented by Sir Henry Bessemer (born in Charlton, England, Jan. 13, 1813; died in London, March 14, 1898), and consists of forcing a current of air through the molten mass of iron. During the calendar year 1902, the production of this form of steel in the United States amounted to 9,138,363 long tons in ingots and castings, the largest production in the history of this industry in the United States. In 1902 the maximum production of Bessemer steel rails was reached, when the output was 2,876,293 long tons. In the production of ingots Pennsylvania ranked first, with 4,209,326 tons; Ohio second, with 2,528,802; and Illinois third, with 1,443,614; and in the production of Bessemer steel rails Pennsylvania ranked first, with 1,148,425 tons, the remainder being divided among the other States. A further evidence of the remarkable growth of the allied iron and steel industry is found in the commercial returns of the United States Treasury Department for the year ending June 30, 1904, which show that $111,948,586 worth of iron and steel was exported, exclusive of ores, an increase over the preceding year of $15,306,119.

Beveridge, ALBERT JEREMIAH, lawyer; born in Highland county, O., Oct. 6, 1862; was graduated at De Pauw University, and began the practice of law in Indianapolis. In 1883 he entered political life. He was elected to the United States Senate as a Republican from Indiana, Jan. 17, 1899. After his election he went to the Philippine Islands, Japan, and Siberia, to study their material and political conditions. Returning, he delivered in the Senate a most thrilling address in favor of the administration's policy towards the Philippines. He published *The Russian Advance*, in 1903, etc.

Beverly, ROBERT, historian; born in Virginia about 1675. During Sir Edmund Andros's administration he was clerk of the council, an office his father had held before him. He wrote *History of the Present State of Virginia* (4 volumes, published in London in 1705). This included an account of the first settlement of Virginia, and the history of the government until that time. Mr. Beverly is said to have been the first American citizen in whose behalf the *habeas corpus* act was brought into requisition. He died in 1716.

Biard, PETER, missionary; born in Grenoble, France, in 1565; came to America as a missionary priest of the Jesuits in 1611; ascended the Kennebec River, and made friends with the natives in 1612; went up the Penobscot River and started a mission among the natives there in the following year; and soon afterwards founded a colony on Mount Desert Island, which was destroyed by SAMUEL ARGALL (*q. v.*). In this attack by the English Biard was taken prisoner, and the act was one of the earliest causes of the hostilities between the colonists in America from France and England. Father Biard was author of *Relations de la nouvelle France*, which was the first work in the historical series known as the *Jesuit Relations*. He died in France in 1622.

Bible. The first Bible printed in America was Eliot's Indian translation, issued at Cambridge, Mass., in 1663. A German edition of the Bible, in quarto,

was printed at Germantown, near Philadelphia, in 1743, by Christopher Sauer. In 1782 Robert Aitkin, printer and bookseller in Philadelphia, published the first American edition of the Bible in English, also in quarto form; and in 1791 Isaiah Thomas printed the Bible in English, in folio form, at Worcester, Mass. This was the first in that form issued from the press in the United States. The same year Isaac Collins printed the English version, in quarto form, at Trenton, N. J.

Bible Society, AMERICAN. The first Bible Society in the United States was formed in Philadelphia in 1802. When, in 1816, the American Bible Society was organized, there were between fifty and sixty societies in the Union. Delegates from these met in New York in May, 1816, and founded the "American Bible Society." ELIAS BOUDINOT (*q. v.*) was chosen president, and thirty-six managers were appointed, all of whom were laymen of seven different denominations. The avowed object of the society was to "encourage a wider circulation of the Holy Scriptures without note or comment." In the first year of its existence it issued 6,410 copies of the Scriptures. In 1898–99 the issues aggregated 1,380,892 copies, and, in the eighty-three years of its existence then closed, 65,962,505 copies. In 1836 the Baptists seceded from the American Bible Society, and founded the "American and Foreign Bible Society," conducted entirely by that denomination. A secession from this Baptist Bible Society occurred in 1850, when the "American Bible Union" was formed.

Bickmore, ALBERT SMITH, educator; born in St. George, Me., March 1, 1839; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1860, and studied under Professor Agassiz at the Lawrence Scientific School in Cambridge, Mass. In 1865–69 he travelled in the Malay Archipelago and in eastern Asia. Returning, he was appointed Professor of Natural History at Madison University. In 1885 he became professor in charge of the Department of Public Instruction in the American Museum of Natural History in New York. He is the author of *Travels in the East Indian Archipelago; The Ainos, or Hairy Men of Jesso; Sketch of a Journey from Canton to Hangkow*, etc.

Bicknell, THOMAS WILLIAM, educator; born in Barrington, R. I., Sept. 6, 1834; was graduated at Brown University in 1860; teacher and principal of schools in 1860–69; and Commissioner of Education in Rhode Island in 1869–75. He was the founder, editor, and proprietor of the *New England Journal of Education; Education*, and *Primary Teacher*, and a founder of the National Council of Education. In 1860 he was a member of the Rhode Island legislature, and in 1888–90 of the Massachusetts legislature. He is author of *State Educational Reports; John Myles and Religious Toleration; Life of W. L. Noyes; Brief History of Barrington; Barrington in the Revolution; The Bicknells*, etc.

Biddle, CLEMENT, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., May 10, 1740; was descended from one of the early Quaker settlers in western New Jersey, and when the war for independence broke out he assisted in raising a company of soldiers in Philadelphia. He was deputy quartermaster-general of Pennsylvania militia in 1776, and commissary of forage under General Greene. On the organization of the national government he was appointed United States marshal for Pennsylvania. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., July 14, 1814.

Biddle, JAMES, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 29, 1783; was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, and entered the navy, as midshipman, Feb. 12, 1800. He was wrecked in the frigate *Philadelphia*, off Tripoli, in October, 1803, and was a prisoner nineteen months. As first lieutenant of the *Wasp*, he led the boarders in the action with the *Frolic*, Oct. 18, 1812. Captured by the *Poictiers*, he was exchanged in March, 1813; and was made master commander in charge of a flotilla of gunboats in the Delaware River soon afterwards. In command of the *Hornet* he captured the *Penguin*, March 23, 1813. For this victory Congress voted him a gold medal. Made captain in February, 1815, he held important commands in different parts of the world. While in command of a squadron in the Mediterranean (1830–32), he was given a commission to negotiate a commercial treaty with the Turkish gov-

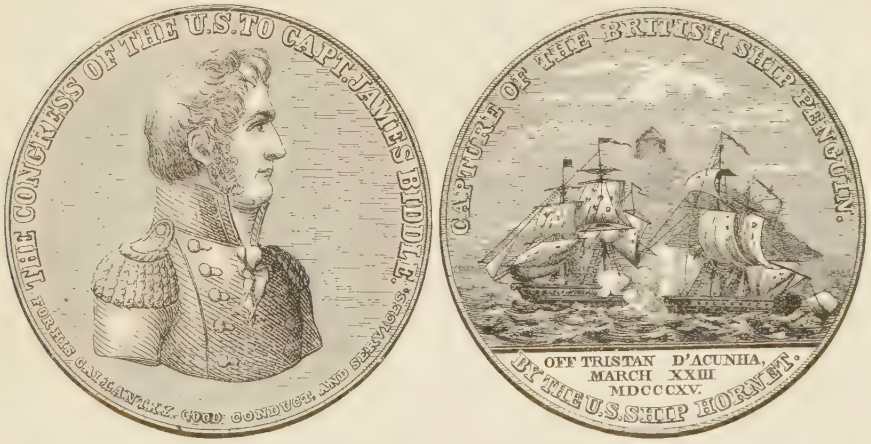
ernment. In 1845 he performed diplomatic service in China, and visited Japan. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 1, 1848.

JAMES BIDDLE.

Biddle, NICHOLAS, banker; born in Philadelphia, Jan. 8, 1786; graduated at Princeton in 1801; appointed president of the United States Bank in 1822; resigned in 1839. He died in Philadelphia, Feb. 27, 1844.

Biddle, NICHOLAS, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 10, 1750; made a voyage to Quebec before he was fourteen years of age. He entered the British navy in 1770. While a midshipman, he absconded, and became a sailor before the mast in the *Carcass*, in the exploring expedition of Captain Phipps in which Horatio Nelson served. Returning to Philadelphia, he commanded the brig *Andrea Doria*, under Commodore Hopkins. In 1776 he captured two transports from Scotland, with 400 Highland troops bound for America. In February, 1777, he sailed from Philadelphia in the frigate *Randolph*, and soon carried four valuable prizes into Charleston. Then he cruised in the West India waters. In an action with a British 64-gun ship, March 7, 1778, he was wounded. A few minutes afterwards the *Randolph* was blown up; and of the entire crew, consisting of 315 men, only four escaped.

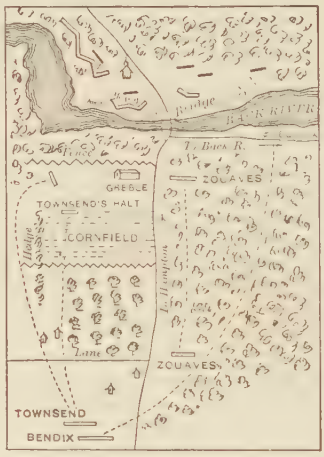
Bienville, JEAN BAPTISTE LE MOYNE, pioneer; brother of Le Moyne Iberville, who founded a French settlement at Biloxi, near the mouth of the Mississippi, in 1698; born in Montreal, Feb. 23, 1680. For several years he was in the French naval service with Iberville, and accompanied him with his brother Sauville to Louisiana. In 1699 Bienville explored the country around Biloxi. Sauville was appointed governor of Louisiana in 1699, and the next year Bienville constructed a fort 54 miles above the mouth of the river. Sau-


THE CONGRESS OF THE U.S. TO CAPT. JAMES BIDDLE.
FOR HIS GALLANTRY, GOOD CONDUCT, AND SERVICES.
CAPTURE OF THE BRITISH SHIP PENGUIN.
OFF TRISTAN D'ACUNHA, MARCH XXIII MDCCCXV.
BY THE U.S. SHIP HORNET.

MEDAL PRESENTED TO JAMES BIDDLE BY CONGRESS.

ville died in 1701, when Bienville took charge of the colony, transferring the seat of government to Mobile. In 1704 he was joined by his brother Chateaugay, who brought seventeen settlers from France. Soon afterwards a ship brought twenty young women as wives for settlers at Mobile. Iberville soon afterwards died, and Bienville, charged with misconduct, was dismissed from office in 1707. His successor dying on his way from France, Bienville retained the office. Having tried unsuccessfully to cultivate the land by Indian labor, Bienville proposed to the government to exchange Indians for negroes in the West Indies, at the rate of three Indians for one negro. Bienville remained at the head of the colony until 1713, when Cadillac arrived, as governor, with a commission for the former as lieutenant-governor. Quarrels between them ensued. Cadillac was superseded in 1717 by Epinay, and Bienville received the decoration of the Cross of St. Louis. In 1718 he founded the city of New Orleans; and war breaking out between France and Spain, he seized Pensacola and put his brother Chateaugay in command there. He was summoned to France in 1724 to answer charges, where he remained until 1733, when he was sent back to Louisiana as governor. Having made unsuccessful expeditions against the Chickasaws, he was superseded in 1743, and returned to France, where he died in 1765. See CÉLORON.

Big Bethel, BATTLE AT. When General Butler arrived at his headquarters at Fort Monroe (May, 1861), he first established Camp Hamilton, near the fort, as a rendezvous for troops gathering there. There were gathered Phelps's Vermont regiment, and another from Troy, N. Y.; and soon afterwards they were joined by a well-disciplined regiment of Zouaves, under Col. Abraham Duryée, of New York City. Duryée was assigned to the command of the camp as acting brigadier-general. Butler conceived a plan of taking possession of the country between Suffolk and Petersburg and Norfolk, and so threatening the Weldon Railroad, the great highway between Virginia and the Carolinas. But, lacking troops, he contented himself with taking possession of and fortifying the important strategic point of Newport News. He sent (May 27, 1861) Colonel Phelps thither in a steamer with a detachment to fortify that place. He was accompanied by Lieut. John Trout Greble,



MAP OF THE BATTLE AT BIG BETHEL.

an accomplished young graduate of West Point, whom he appointed master of ordnance, to superintend the construction of fortifications there which commanded the ship-channel of the James River and the mouth of the Nansemond. The forced inaction of the National troops at Fort Monroe, and the threatening aspect of affairs at Newport News, made the armed Confederates under Col. J. B. Magruder bold, active, and vigilant. Their principal rendezvous was at Yorktown, on the York River, which they were fortifying. They pushed down the peninsula to impress slaves into their service, and to force Union men into their ranks. At Big and Little Bethel (two churches on the road between Yorktown and Hampton) they made fortified outposts. It was evident that Magruder was preparing to seize Newport News and Hampton, and confine Butler to Fort Monroe. The latter determined on a countervailing movement by an attack on these outposts. Gen. E. W. Pearce, of Massachusetts, was placed in command of an expedition for that purpose, composed of Duryée's Zouaves and the Troy troops at Camp Hamilton, Vermont and Massachusetts troops, some German New York troops, under Colonel Ben-

dix, and two 6-pounders (field-pieces), under Lieutenant Greble, from Newport News. The latter had under him eleven regular artillerymen. The troops from the two points of departure were to be joined, in the night, near Little Bethel.

The soldiers wore on their left arms a white rag or handkerchief, so that they might recognize each other in the dark. Their watchword was "Boston." Lieutenant-Colonel Washburne led the column from Newport News, followed by Bendix with his Germans. Duryée pushed forward, followed by Colonel Townsend with the Troy troops. The latter and Bendix approached each other in the gloom, near Little Bethel, the appointed place of junction. Bendix and his men, ignorant of the order to wear a white badge, were without it, and the two columns mistook each other for enemies. The Germans opened fire on Townsend's column. After a short skirmish, in which two men were killed and several wounded, the mistake was discovered. Duryée and Washburne, hearing the firing, hastened their march, and soon joined the confused regiments. The Confederates had been warned of the approaching troops by the firing, and Brigadier-General Pearce, in chief command, sent back for reinforcements, as a surprise was then out of the question. The Confederates at Little Bethel fell back to Big Bethel, 4 or 5 miles distant, and all of them at the latter place were on the alert. There were about 1,800 Confederates behind works, with several pieces of cannon in battery. The Nationals, about 2,500 strong, attacked them between nine and ten o'clock on the morning of June 10, 1861. Troops under Captains Kilpatrick, Bartlett, and Winslow (all of which were under Lieut.-Col. G. K. Warren, of the Zouaves) were thrown out on each side of the road, while Lieutenant Greble, with his two little field-pieces, kept the road. The troops on each side of the road were finally driven to the shelter of the woods by a storm of shot and shell; but Greble continued advancing, and poured a rapid and effective storm of grape and canister shot from his battery. He held his position while the rest of the army was preparing for a general assault. At about noon a charge was sounded, with instructions to dash across a morass, flank the works of the Confederates, and drive out the occupants at the point of the bayonet.

The Nationals were nearly successful, when a portion of them were driven back by a murderous fire from the Confederates. This and other adverse circumstances caused Pearce to order a retreat. All of Greble's men had been disabled but five, and he could only work one gun. He was just limbering them up, when a shot from the Confederates struck a glancing blow on his head, and he fell dead. Maj. Theodore Winthrop, one of General Butler's aides, was also instantly killed by a bullet from a North Carolina drummer-boy. Greble's body was taken to Philadelphia, where it lay in state in Independence Hall; was the first officer of the regular army of the United States who fell in the Civil War. The result of the expedition to Big Bethel was national exasperation and mortification. The Unionists lost sixteen killed, thirty-four wounded, and five missing. The Confederate loss was trifling.

Big Black River, Battle at. From Champion Hills, the Confederates were pursued, and bivouacked during the night of May 16, 1863, on the hill overlooking Edward's Station and the fertile plain between it and the Big Black River. The pursuit was renewed in the morning, but the Confederates were soon found well posted on both sides of the river, near the railway bridge, and were strongly fortified. Behind their defences on the eastern side of the river were several brigades; and above the bridge Pemberton had constructed a passage-way for troops, composed of the hulks of steamboats. General Carr's division led the Nationals, and first engaged in battle; and soon there was a fierce struggle between the two armies in the forest for three hours, when General Lawler, commanding Carr's right, gave an order for his brigade, composed of Iowa and Wisconsin troops, to charge. They sprang forward and drove the Confederates to their intrenchments, but suffered fearfully from an enfilading fire from a curtain of the Confederates' breastworks, which prostrated 150 of their number. The assailants waded a shallow bayou, and charged on the works before the Confederates had time to reload. Meanwhile, many of those within fled

across the river, and communicated their own panic to the troops there. They expected the Nationals would immediately cross the stream; so they burned both bridges—cutting off the retreat of their comrades, who were yet fighting. They fled pell-mell towards the defences around Vicksburg. The assailed garrison, about 1,500 strong, was captured, with seventeen guns, several thousand small-arms, and a large quantity of stores. They lost, in killed and wounded, 262 men. General Osterhaus, of the Nationals, was wounded, and the command of his troops devolved upon Brig.-Gen. A. L. Lee. Sharp-shooters in the works on the high banks across the river covered the retreat of the Confederates, and for hours kept the Nationals from constructing floating bridges.

BATTLE AT BIG BLACK RIVER.

Grant's pontoon train was with Sherman, who had been making his way from Jackson to another point (above) on the Big Black River. The Confederates at the bridge fled to Vicksburg. A floating bridge was constructed, and at the same time (May 18, 1863) the three corps crossed the river, and began the siege of Vicksburg.

Big Blue Lick, BATTLE AT. Parties of Indians and Tories, from north of the Ohio, greatly harassed the settlements in Kentucky in 1782. A large body of these,

VIEW IN THE BIG BLACK RIVER.

headed by Simon Girty, a cruel white miscreant, entered these settlements in August. They were pursued by about 180 men, under Colonels Todd, Trigg, and Boone, who rashly attacked them (Aug. 19) at the Big Blue Lick, where the road from Maysville to Lexington crosses the Licking River in Nicholas county. One of the most sanguinary battles ever fought in Kentucky then and there occurred. The Kentuckians lost sixty-seven men, killed, wounded, and prisoners; and, after a severe struggle, the rest escaped. The slaughter in the river was great, the ford being crowded with white people and Indians, all fighting in horrid confusion. The fugitives were keenly pursued for 20 miles. This was the last incursion south of the Ohio by any large body of barbarians.

Bigelow, Erastus Brigham, inventor; born in West Boyleston, Mass., April 2, 1814. His father was a cotton manufacturer; and this son, before he was eighteen years of age, had invented a hand-loom for weaving suspender webbing. In 1838 he obtained a patent for an automatic loom for weaving knotted counterpanes, but soon made great improvements. In 1839 he entered into a contract with a Lowell manufacturing company to construct a power-loom for weaving two-ply ingrain carpets (that were before woven exclusively by the hand-loom, which could produce only 8 yards a day). He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 6, 1879.

Bigelow, John, author; born in Malden, Ulster co., N. Y., Nov. 25, 1817; was graduated at Union College in 1835; and became a lawyer. In 1849–61 he was one of the editors of the New York *Evening Post.* He was United States consul at Paris in 1861–64; minister to France in 1864–67, and secretary of state of New York in 1875–77. He was the biographer and trustee of the late Samuel J. Tilden: and in 1900 was president of the board of trustees of the New York Public Library (*q. v.*). He is author of *Molinos the Quietist; France and the Confederate Navy; Life of William Cullen Bryant; Life of Samuel J. Tilden; Some Recollections of Edouard Laboulaye; The Mystery of Sleep,* and editor of *A Life of Franklin; Writings and Speeches of Samuel J. Tilden,* etc.

JOHN BIGELOW.

Bigelow, Timothy, military officer; born in Worcester, Mass., Aug. 12, 1739; was a blacksmith and a zealous patriot; member of the Provincial Congress; led minute-men to Cambridge; and accompanied Arnold in his notable expedition to Quebec in 1775, where he was made a prisoner. As colonel, he assisted in the capture of Burgoyne, and was active in some of the stirring scenes of the war afterwards. Colonel Bigelow was in charge of the Springfield Arsenal after the war, and was one of the original grantees of Montpelier, Vt. He died in Worcester, Mass., March 31, 1790.

Billings, John Shaw, surgeon and librarian; born in Switzerland county, Ind., April 12, 1839; was graduated at Miami University in 1857; was Demonstrator of Anatomy at the Medical College of Ohio in 1860–61; served in the medical department during the Civil War, rising to the rank of deputy surgeon-general in 1864. After the war he was on duty in the office of the surgeon-general in Washington till his retirement from the service in 1895. He was Professor of Hygiene in the University of Pennsylvania in 1893–96, and in the last year became director of the New York Public Library. He is a member of numerous scientific societies, both in the United States and in Europe. He has published *Principles of Ventilation and Heating; Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office; National Medical Dictionary,* etc. See New York Public Library.

Billings, Josh. See **Shaw, Henry Wheeler.**

Bill of Rights. The title of an act of Parliament declaring the rights and liberties of the people and defining the power of the King, passed in 1689.

Whereas the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of the people of this realm, did upon the Thirteenth day of February, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Six Hundred Eighty-eight [o. s.], present unto their Majesties, then called and known by the names and style of William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, being present in their proper persons, a certain Declaration in writing, made by the said Lords and Commons, in the words following, viz.:

Whereas the late King James II., by the assistance of divers evil counsellors, judges, and ministers employed by him, did endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom:

1. By assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws, and the execution of laws, without consent of Parliament.

2. By committing and prosecuting divers worthy prelates for humbly petitioning to be excused from concurring to the said assumed power.

3. By issuing and causing to be executed a commission under the Great Seal for erecting a court, called the Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes.

4. By levying money for and to the use of the Crown by pretence of prerogative, for other time and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament.

5. By raising and keeping a standing army within this kingdom in time of peace, without consent of Parliament, and employed contrary to law.

6. By causing several good subjects, being Protestants, to be disarmed, at the same time when Papists were both armed and employed contrary to law.

7. By violating the freedom of election of members to serve in Parliament.

8. By prosecutions in the Court of King's Bench for matters and causes cognisable only in Parliament, and by divers other arbitrary and illegal causes.

9. And whereas of late years, partial, corrupt, and unqualified persons have been returned, and served on juries in trials, and particularly divers jurors in trials for high treason, which were not freeholders.

10. And excessive bail hath been required of persons committed in criminal cases, to elude the benefit of the laws made for the liberty of the subjects.

11. And excessive fines have been imposed; and illegal and cruel punishments inflicted.

12. And several grants and promises made of fines and forfeitures before any conviction or judgment against the persons upon whom the same were to be levied.

All which are utterly and directly contrary to the known laws and statutes, and freedom of this realm.

And whereas the said late King James II. having abdicated the government, and the throne being thereby vacant, his Highness the Prince of Orange (whom it hath pleased Almighty God to make the glorious instrument of delivering this kingdom from Popery and arbitrary power) did (by the advice of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and divers principal persons of the Commons) cause letters to be written to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, being Protestants, and other letters to the several counties, cities, universities, boroughs, and cinque ports, for the choosing of such persons to represent them as were of right to be sent to Parliament, to meet and sit at Westminster upon the two-and-twentieth day of January, in this year One Thousand Six Hundred Eighty and Eight, in order to such an establishment, as that their religion, laws, and liberties might not again be in danger of being subverted; upon which letters elections have been accordingly made.

And thereupon the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, pursuant to their respective letters and elections, being now assembled in a full and free representation of this nation, taking into their most serious consideration the best means for attaining the ends aforesaid, do in the first place (as their ancestors in like cases have usually done) for the

vindicating and asserting their ancient rights and liberties, declare:

1. That the pretended power of suspending of laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without consent of Parliament, is illegal.

2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal.

3. That the commission for erecting the late Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes, and all other commissions and courts of like nature, are illegal and pernicious.

4. That levying money for or to the use of the Crown by pretence and prerogative, without grant of Parliament, for longer time or in other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal.

5. That it is the right of the subjects to petition the King, and all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal.

6. That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against law.

7. That the subjects which are Protestants may have arms for their defence suitable to their conditions, and as allowed by law.

8. That election of members of Parliament ought to be free.

9. That the freedom of speech, and debates or proceedings in Parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Parliament.

10. That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed; nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

11. That jurors ought to be duly impanelled and returned, and jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason ought to be freeholders.

12. That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction are illegal and void.

13. And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, Parliament ought to be held frequently.

And they do claim, demand, and insist upon all and singular the premises, as their undoubted rights and liberties; and that no declarations, judgments, doings or proceedings, to the prejudice of the people in any of the said premises, ought in any wise to be drawn hereafter into consequence or example.

To which demand of their rights they are particularly encouraged by the declaration of his Highness the Prince of Orange, as being the only means for obtaining a full redress and remedy therein.

Having therefore an entire confidence that his said Highness the Prince of Orange will perfect the deliverance so far advanced by him, and will still preserve them from the violation of their rights, which they have here asserted, and from all other attempts upon their religion, rights, and liberties:

II. The said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, do resolve, that William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, be, and be declared, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, to hold the crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to them the said Prince and Princess during their lives, and the life of the survivor of them; and that the sole and full exercise of the regal power be only in, and executed by, the said Prince of Orange, in the names of the said Prince and Princess, during their joint lives; and after their deceases, the said crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to be to the heirs of the body of the said Princess; and for default of such issue to the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and for default of such issue to the heirs of the body of the said Prince of Orange. And the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do pray the said Prince and Princess to accept the same accordingly.

III. And that the oaths hereafter mentioned be taken by all persons of whom the oaths of allegiance and supremacy might be required by law instead of them; and that the said oaths of allegiance and supremacy be abrogated.

"I, A. B., do sincerely promise and swear, That I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to their Majesties King William and Queen Mary:

"So help me God."

"I, A. B., do swear, That I do from my

heart abhor, detest, and abjure as impious and heretical that damnable doctrine and position, that princes excommunicated or deprived by the Pope, or any authority of the See of Rome, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or any other whatsoever. And I do declare, that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate hath, or ought to have, any jurisdiction, power, superiority, pre-eminence, or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm:

"So help me God."

IV. Upon which their said Majesties did accept the crown and royal dignity of the kingdoms of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the resolution and desire of the said Lords and Commons contained in the said declaration.

V. And thereupon their Majesties were pleased, that the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, being the two Houses of Parliament, should continue to sit, and with their Majesties' royal concurrence make effectual provision for the settlement of the religion, laws, and liberties of this kingdom, so that the same for the future might not be in danger again of being subverted; to which the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, did agree and proceed to act accordingly.

VI. Now in pursuance of the premises, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, for the ratifying, confirming, and establishing the said declaration, and the articles, clauses, matters, and things therein contained, by the force of a law made in due form by authority of Parliament, do pray that it may be declared and enacted, That all and singular the rights and liberties asserted and claimed in the said declaration are the true, ancient, and indubitable rights and liberties of the people of this kingdom, and so shall be esteemed, allowed, adjudged, deemed, and taken to be, and that all and every the particulars aforesaid shall be firmly and strictly holden and observed, as they are expressed in the said declaration; and all officers and ministers whatsoever shall serve their Majesties and their successors according to the same in all times to come.

VII. And the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, seriously considering how it hath pleased Almighty God, in his marvellous providence, and merciful goodness to this nation, to provide and preserve their said Majesties' royal persons most happily to reign over us upon the throne of their ancestors, for which they render unto Him from the bottom of their hearts their humblest thanks and praises, do truly, firmly, assuredly, and in the sincerity of their hearts, think, and do hereby recognise, acknowledge, and declare, that King James II. having abdicated the Government, and their Majesties having accepted the Crown and royal dignity as aforesaid, their said Majesties did become, were, are, and of right ought to be, by the laws of this realm, our sovereign liege Lord and Lady, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, in and to whose princely persons the royal state, crown, and dignity of the said realms, with all honours, styles, titles, regalities, prerogatives, powers, jurisdictions, and authorities to the same belonging and appertaining, are most fully, rightfully, and entirely invested and incorporated, united, and annexed.

VIII. And for preventing all questions and divisions in this realm, by reason of any pretended titles to the Crown, and for preserving a certainty in the succession thereof, in and upon which the unity, peace, tranquillity, and safety of this nation doth, under God, wholly consist and depend, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do beseech their Majesties that it may be enacted, established, and declared, that the Crown and regal government of the said kingdoms and dominions, with all and singular the premises thereunto belonging and appertaining, shall be and continue to their Majesties, and the survivor of them, during their lives, and the life of the survivor of them. And that the entire, perfect, and full exercise of the regal power and government be only in, and executed by, his Majesty, in the names of both their Majesties, during their joint lives; and after their deceases the said Crown and premises shall be and remain to the heirs of the body of her Majesty: and for default of such issue, to her Royal Highness the

Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and for default of such issue, to the heirs of the body of his said Majesty: And thereunto the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do, in the name of all the people aforesaid, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterities, for ever: and do faithfully promise, that they will stand to, maintain, and defend their said Majesties, and also the limitation and succession of the Crown herein specified and contained, to the utmost of their powers, with their lives and estates, against all persons whatsoever that shall attempt anything to the contrary.

IX. And whereas it hath been found by experience, that it is inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a Popish prince, or by any king or queen marrying a Papist, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do further pray that it may be enacted, That all and every person and persons that is, are, or shall be reconciled to, or shall hold communion with, the See or Church of Rome, or shall profess the Popish religion, or shall marry a Papist, shall be excluded, and be for ever incapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the Crown and Government of this realm, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, or any part of the same, or to have, use, or exercise, any regal power, authority, or jurisdiction within the same; and in all and every such case or cases the people of these realms shall be and are hereby absolved of their allegiance, and the said Crown and Government shall from time to time descend to, and be enjoyed by, such person or persons, being Protestants, as should have inherited and enjoyed the same, in case the said person or persons so reconciled, holding communion, or professing, or marrying, as aforesaid, were naturally dead.

X. And that every King and Queen of this realm, who at any time hereafter shall come to and succeed in the Imperial Crown of this kingdom, shall, on the first day of the meeting of the first Parliament, next after his or her coming to the Crown, sitting in his or her throne in the House of Peers, in the presence of the Lords and Commons therein assembled, or at his or her coronation, before such person or persons who shall administer the coronation oath to him or her, at the time of his or her taking the said oath (which shall first happen), make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the declaration mentioned in the statute made in the thirteenth year of the reign of King Charles II., intituled "An Act for the more effectual preserving the King's person and Government, by disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament." But if it shall happen that such King or Queen, upon his or her succession to the Crown of this realm, shall be under the age of twelve years, then every such King or Queen shall make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the said declaration at his or her coronation, or the first day of meeting of the first Parliament as aforesaid, which shall first happen after such King or Queen shall have attained the said age of twelve years.

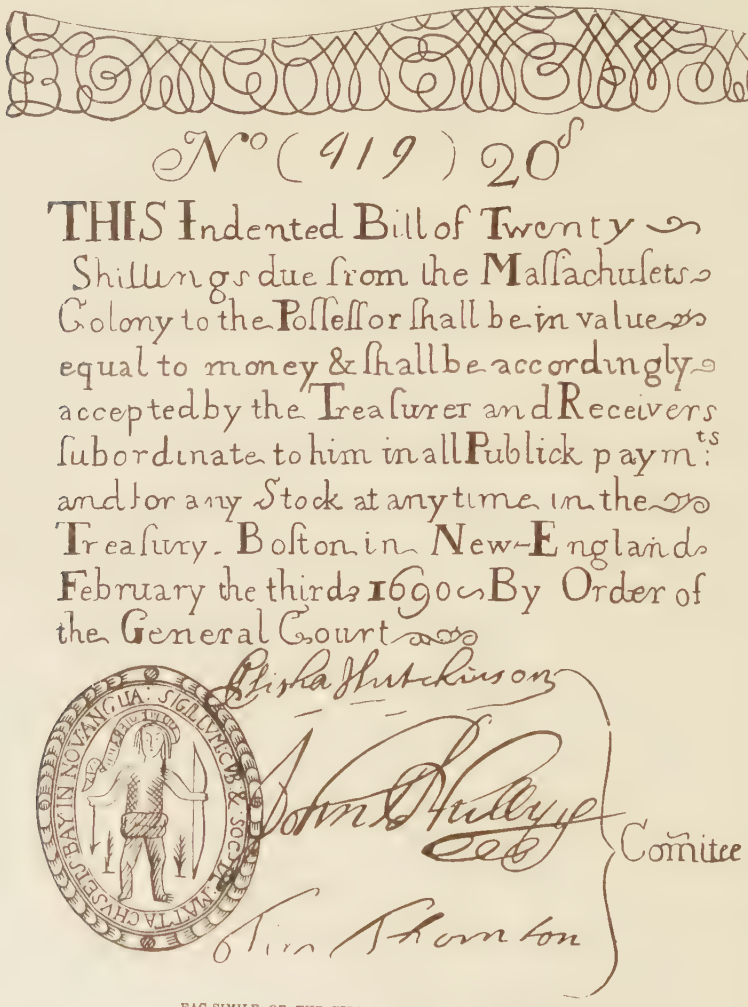
XI. All which their Majesties are contented and pleased shall be declared, enacted, and established by authority of this present Parliament, and shall stand, remain, and be the law of this realm for ever; and the same are by their said Majesties, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, declared, enacted, or established accordingly.

XII. And be it further declared and enacted by the authority aforesaid, That from and after this present session of Parliament, no dispensation by *non obstante* of or to any statute, or any part thereof, shall be allowed, but that the same shall be held void and of no effect, except a dispensation be allowed of in such statute, and except in such cases as shall be specially provided for by one or more bill or bills to be passed during this present session of Parliament.

XIII. Provided that no charter, or grant, or pardon granted before the three-and-twentieth day of October, in the year of our Lord One thousand six hundred eighty-nine, shall be any ways impeached or invalidated by this Act, but that the same shall be and remain of the same force and effect in law, and no other, than as if this Act had never been made.

Bills of Credit. The first bills of credit, or paper money, issued in the Eng-

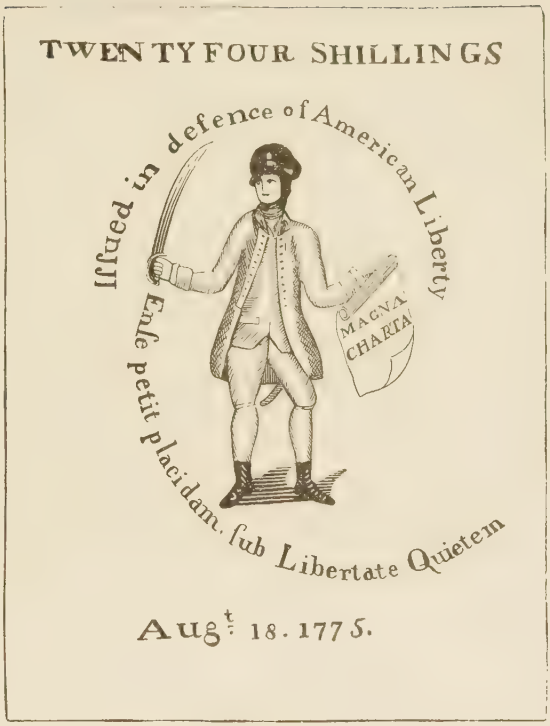
lish-American colonies were put forth by Massachusetts, in 1690, to pay the troops who went on an expedition against Quebec, under Sir William Phipps. The expedition was unsuccessful. The men had suffered from sickness; had not gained expected plunder; and when they arrived at Boston, disgusted and out of temper, the treasury of the colony had become exhausted, and there was no money to pay them. They threatened a riot. The General Court resolved to issue bills of credit, or treasury notes, varying from five shillings to five pounds, receivable in payment of taxes, and redeemable out of any money in the treasury. The total amount of this paper currency issued was a little more than $133,000; but long before that limit was reached the bills depreciated one-half. The General Court revived their credit in 1691, by making them a legal tender in all payments. The first issue was in February, 1691, though the bills were dated 1690—the year, according to


N° (919) 20s
THIS Indented Bill of Twenty
Shillings due from the Massachusets
Colony to the Possessor shall be in value
equal to money & shall be accordingly
accepted by the Treasurer and Receivers
subordinate to him in all Publick paym.ts
and for any Stock at any time in the
Treasury. Boston in New-England
February the third 1690 By Order of
the General Court
Elisha Hutchinson
John Phillips
Comitee
Tim Thornton

FAC-SIMILE OF THE FIRST AMERICAN PAPER MONEY.

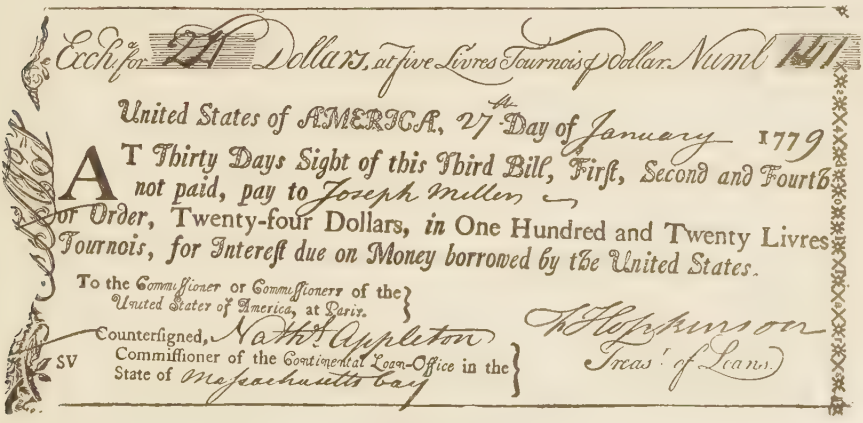
the calendar then in use, not beginning until March.

When an expedition for the conquest of Canada was determined on in 1711, the credit of the English treasury, exhausted by costly wars, was so low at Boston that nobody would purchase bills upon it without an endorsement, which Massachusetts furnished in the form of bills of credit to the amount of about $200,000, advanced to the merchants who supplied the fleet with provisions. The province issued paper money to the amount of about $50,000 to meet its share of the expenses of the proposed expedition. After the affair at Lexington and Concord, the patriots of Massachusetts made vigorous preparations for war. On May 5, 1775, the Provincial Congress formally renounced allegiance to the British power, and prepared for the payment of an army to resist all encroachments upon their liberties. They also authorized (in August) the issue of bills of credit, or paper money, in the form of treasury notes, to the amount of $375,000, making them a legal tender, the back of which is shown in the above engraving. The literal translation of the words is, "He seeks by the sword calm repose under the auspices of freedom."


TWENTY FOUR SHILLINGS
Issued in defence of American Liberty
Ense petit placidam sub Libertate Quietem
MAGNA CHARTA
Aug^t 18. 1775.

REVERSE OF A MASSACHUSETTS TREASURY NOTE.

In 1755 the Virginia Assembly voted $100,000 towards the support of the colo-


Each for 24 Dollars, at five Livres Tournois p Dollar. Numb 1411
United States of AMERICA, 27th Day of January 1779
AT Thirty Days Sight of this Third Bill, First, Second and Fourth not paid, pay to Joseph Miller or Order, Twenty-four Dollars, in One Hundred and Twenty Livres Tournois, for Intereſt due on Money borrowed by the United States.
To the Commiſſioner or Commiſſioners of the United States of America, at Paris.
Counterſigned, Nath^l Appleton Commiſſioner of the Continental Loan-Office in the State of Maſſachusetts bay
SV
Th Hopkinson Treas^r of Loans.

CONTINENTAL DRAFT.

nial service in the impending French and Indian War. In anticipation of the taxes imposed to meet this amount, the Assembly authorized the issue of treasury notes —the first paper money put forth in Virginia.

During the war in 1763 Pontiac established a commissary department with a careful head; and during the siege of Detroit (1763–64) he issued promissory notes, or bills of credit, to purchase food for his warriors. These bills were written upon birch bark, and signed with his totem—the figure of an otter; and so highly was that chief esteemed by the French inhabitants for his integrity that these bills were received by them without hesitation. Unlike our Continental bills of credit, these Indian notes were all redeemed.

Bills of Exchange. On Oct. 3, 1776, the Continental Congress resolved to borrow $5,000,000 for the use of the United States, at the annual interest of 4 per cent., and directed certificates to be issued accordingly by the manager of a loan office which was established at the same time. When foreign loans were made, drafts or bills of exchange were used for the payment of interest. On the preceding page is shown fac-simile of one of these drafts, reduced in size. It is drawn on the commissioner of Congress, then in Paris, signed by Francis Hopkinson, the Treasurer of Loans, and countersigned by Nathaniel Appleton, commissioner of the Continental Loan Office in Massachusetts.

Bimetallism, a term currently employed to designate a double monetary standard of value. The contention of the bimetallists, as defined by Mr. Balfour, himself a strong bimetallist, is that "if they could by international agreement fix some ratio of exchange between gold and silver coin they would create an automatic system by which the demand and supply of gold and silver respectively would maintain that ratio at the point they fixed it." Bimetallists affirmed that the condition of commerce generally was most unsatisfactory, and that this condition was due largely to the great uncertainty of exchange between the gold-standard and silver-standard countries. The remedy that they proposed for the relief of this uncertainty was that an agreement should be established on a broad international basis to again open the mints of the great countries of the world for the free and unlimited coinage of both gold and silver. An International Monetary Congress was convened at Paris in September, 1889, and a similar one, called by the United States "to consider by what means, if any, the use of silver can be increased in the currency system of the nations," met in Brussels in November, 1892, and separated without practical results.

On March 17, 1896, a resolution was passed by the British House of Commons, urging upon the English government the necessity of securing by international agreement a solid monetary par of exchange between gold and silver. In April, 1896, a Bimetallic Congress convened at Brussels, made up of representatives from the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Rumania, and Russia, and organized a permanent committee, under the belief that there could be an immediate agreement if the United States would re-establish bimetallism, if the Indian mints were reopened for the coinage of silver, if the Bank of England would turn into silver a part of its metallic reserve, and if the various European countries would absorb a sufficient amount of silver. The agitation of the silver question in the United States largely influenced the Presidential campaign of 1896. It became evident in the first half of the year that the free-silver doctrine had won a large part of the Democratic party, which adopted at the Chicago Convention (July 7) a platform, the most important plank in which contained a declaration for "the immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation," and that "the standard silver dollar shall be full legal tender equally with gold for all debts, public or private." The Democratic party nominated WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN (*q. v.*) for President, and he was defeated by William McKinley, the Republican nominee. An era of unexampled prosperity set in immediately after Mr. McKinley's election, and steadily increased

during his first administration. In the party conventions of 1900 the Republicans gave a stanch support to the policy of the administration, especially on the complicated questions growing out of the war with Spain, and particularly on the one involving the future of the Philippine Islands; and the Democrats based their campaign chiefly on opposition to trusts and territorial expansion. The disposition of the Democratic leaders was to ignore entirely the silver question. The Republicans renominated President McKinley, and the Democrats Mr. Bryan, and the latter, in a remarkable tour of political speech-making, while dealing with the anti-trust and imperialist features of the platform on which he was renominated, continued an earnest advocacy of the 16-to-1 silver policy. The result of this election, in which unquestionably many sound-money Democrats gave their support to the Republican candidates, was the second defeat of Mr. Bryan. See Bryan, William J.; Evarts, William Maxwell; Monetary Reform; Morrill, J. S.

Binney, Horace, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 4, 1780; was graduated at Harvard College in 1797, and was admitted to the bar in 1800. He practised law with great success until 1830, when his health became impaired and led to his retirement. Soon afterwards he was elected to Congress as a Republican. He declined a renomination, and for many years devoted himself to writing opinions on legal questions. In 1844, by a masterly argument before the Supreme Court of the United States, on the case of Bidal *vs.* Girard's executors, he raised the laws governing charities out of the confusion and obscurity which previously existed. He was author of *The Life and Character of Justice Bushrod Washington; An Inquiry into the Formation of Washington's Farewell Address*, and three pamphlets in support of the power claimed by President Lincoln to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 12, 1875.

Bird, Charles, military officer; born in Delaware, June 17, 1838; entered the volunteer service in 1861; appointed to the regular army in 1866; promoted major in 1895; colonel of volunteers throughout the war with Spain, in 1898, serving in the quartermaster-general's office.

Bird's Point, opposite Cairo, was fortified early in 1861 by the National troops. It was on the west side of the Mississippi River, a few feet higher than Cairo, so that a battery upon it would completely command that place. The Confederates were anxious to secure this point, and to that end General Pillow, who was collecting Confederate troops in western Tennessee, worked with great energy. When Governor Jackson, of Missouri, raised the standard of revolt at Jefferson City, with Sterling Price as military commander, General Lyon, in command of the department, moved more vigorously in the work already begun in the fortification of Bird's Point. His attention had been called to the importance of the spot by Captain Benham, of the engineers, who constructed the works. They were made so strong that they could defy any force the Confederates might bring against them. With these opposite points so fortified, the Nationals controlled a great portion of the navigation of the Mississippi River. See Missouri.

Birge, Henry Warner, military officer; born in Hartford, Conn., Aug. 25, 1825; was one of Governor Buckingham's aides when the Civil War began. He entered the service in June, 1861, as major, and early in 1862 was made colonel. For services on the lower Mississippi he was made brigadier-general, Sept. 19, 1863. He was in the Red River campaign and in Sheridan's campaign in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864. In June, 1865, he was appointed to command the military district of Savannah. For his services in the army he was brevetted major-general of volunteers and voted the thanks of the Connecticut legislature. He died in New York City, June 1, 1888.

Birney, James Gillespie, statesman; born in Danville, Ky., Feb. 4, 1792; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1812; studied law with A. J. Dallas, of Philadelphia; and began its practice in Kentucky in 1814. He was a member of the State legislature at the age of twenty-two; became a planter in Alabama; served in the Alabama legislature; and practised law in Huntsville. Returning to Kentucky in 1834, he emancipated his slaves, and

proposed to print there an anti-slavery paper. He could not find a printer to undertake it; so he went to Ohio and established one, at great personal risk, the opposition to "abolitionists" then being very vehement everywhere. About 1836 he was in New York as secretary of the American Anti-Slavery Society, and tried to build up a political party upon that sole issue. He went to England in 1840, and took part in the anti-slavery movements there. In 1844 he was the candidate of the LIBERTY PARTY (*q. v.*) for the Presidency, the result of which was not only his own defeat, but that of Henry Clay, the candidate of the Whig party for the same office. Mr. Birney was the father of the meritorious Gen. David Bell Birney, who did excellent service for the Union in the Civil War, and died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 18, 1864. James G. Birney died in Perth Amboy, N. J., Nov. 25, 1857.

Bishop, the title of an office in a number of religious denominations, corresponding to Presbyter in others. In the United States the Roman Catholic; Protestant Episcopal; Reformed Episcopal; Methodist Episcopal; Methodist Episcopal, South; African Methodist Episcopal; Old Catholic; and a few other bodies of lesser numerical strength have bishops.

Bissell, WILLIAM H., legislator; born near Cooperstown, N. Y., April 25, 1811; elected to the Illinois legislature in 1840, and became prosecuting attorney for St. Clair county in 1844. During the Mexican War he served as captain of the 2d Illinois Volunteers, and distinguished himself at Buena Vista. In 1839–45 he was a representative in Congress from Illinois; was separated from the Democratic party on the Kansas–Nebraska bill; and was chosen governor on the Republican ticket in 1856, and afterwards re-elected. While in Congress he engaged in a controversy with Jefferson Davis, who challenged Mr. Bissell. Mr. Bissell chose muskets, distance 30 paces, which was unsatisfactory to the friends of Mr. Davis. He died in Springfield, Ill., March 18, 1860.

Bissell, WILSON SHANNON, lawyer; born in New London, N. Y., Dec. 31, 1847; was graduated at Yale College in 1869; became a law partner of Grover Cleveland; and was Postmaster-General in 1893–95. He died Oct. 6, 1903.

Bituminous Coal. See COAL.

Black, FRANK SWETT, lawyer; born in Limington, Me., March 8, 1853; was graduated at Dartmouth College in 1875; Republican member of Congress in 1895–97, and governor of New York in 1897–99.

Black, JAMES, lawyer; born in Lewisburg, Pa., Sept. 23, 1823; was the Presidential nominee of the Prohibition party at its first convention held in Columbus, O., Feb. 22, 1872, with the Rev. John Russell, of Michigan, for Vice-President.

Black, JEREMIAH SULLIVAN, jurist; born in Somerset county, Pa., Jan. 10, 1810; was Attorney-General of the United States in 1857–60; Secretary of State in 1860–61; retired from political life after President Lincoln's inauguration; and was afterwards engaged in many notable law cases. He died in York, Pa., Aug. 19, 1883.

Black, JOHN CHARLES, lawyer; born in Lexington, Mass., Jan. 27, 1839; enlisted in the federal army as a private in 1861; retired as brevet brigadier-general in 1865; commissioner of pensions in 1885–89; and member of Congress in 1893–95.

Black Friday, the designation of Friday, Sept. 24, 1869. Jay Gould and James Fisk, Jr., had attempted to gain control of the gold market of the country by purchasing the entire stock of $15,000,000 then held by the banks of New York City. The value of gold had been going up for several days, and the speculators attempted to raise it from 144 to 200. By Friday the whole metropolis was in a state of tumult, and gold had risen to 162½. The wildest excitement prevailed, and it seemed as if hundreds of strong business houses would be forced to suspend. In the midst of this panic Secretary Boutwell, of the United States Treasury, placed $4,000,000 in gold on the New York market, and as soon as the fact was known the speculative price of gold fell and the excitement abated. It was said that this speculation yielded Gould and Fisk a profit of $11,000,000.

Black Hawk (Ma-ka-tae-mish-kia-kiak), a famous Indian; born in Kaskaskia, Ill., in 1767. He was a Pottawattomie by birth, but became a noted chief of the Sacs and Foxes. He was accounted a brave when he was fifteen years of age, and soon

afterwards led expeditions of war parties against the Osage Indians in Missouri and the Cherokees in Georgia. He became head chief of the Sacs when he was twenty-one years old (1788). Inflamed by Tecumseh and presents from the British agents, he joined the British in the War of 1812–15, with the commission of brigadier-general, leading about 500 warriors. He again reappeared in history in hostilities against the white people on the Northwestern frontier settlements in 1832. In that year eight of a party of Chippewas, on a visit to Fort Snelling, on the west banks of the upper Mississippi, were killed or wounded by a party of Sioux. Four of the latter were afterwards captured by the commander of the garrison at Fort Snelling and delivered up to the Chippewas, who immediately shot them.

The chief of the Sioux (Red Bird) resolved to be revenged, and he and some companions killed several white people. General Atkinson, in command in the Northwest, finally captured Red Bird and a party of Winnebagoes. Red Bird died in prison soon afterwards, when Black Hawk, having been released from confinement, at once began hostilities against the white people on the frontier. General Gaines marched to the village of the Sacs, when they humbly sued for peace. At the same time Black Hawk and a band of followers were murdering the Menomonees, who were friendly to the white inhabitants. Black Hawk crossed the Mississippi, and General Atkinson took the field against him; but in July the cholera broke out among the troops, and whole companies were almost destroyed. In one instance only nine survived out of a corps of 208. Atkinson was reinforced, and, with a command greatly superior to that of Black Hawk, pressed him so closely that the latter sent the women and children of his band down the Mississippi in canoes and prepared for a final struggle.

A severe fight occurred (Aug. 1, 1832) on Bad Axe River, in which twenty-three Indians were killed without loss to the troops. The contest was between 400 Indians and some United States troops on board the steamboat *Warrior*, which had been sent up the river. After the fight the *Warrior* returned to Prairie du Chien. The contest was renewed the next morning between Black Hawk and troops led by General Atkinson, when the Indians were defeated and dispersed, with a considerable loss in killed and wounded, and thirty-six of their women and children made prisoners. There were eight of the troops killed and seventy-seven wounded. Black Hawk was pursued over the Wisconsin River, and at a strong position the fugitive chief made a stand with about 300 men. After a severe battle for three hours he fled, and barely escaped, with the loss of 150 of his bravest warriors and his second in command. The chief himself was finally captured by a party of friendly Winnebagoes and given up to General Steele at Prairie du Chien.

Treaties were then made with the hostile tribes by which the United States acquired valuable lands on favorable terms. Black Hawk, his two sons, and six principal chiefs were retained as hostages. The chief and his sons were taken to Washington to visit the President; and then they were shown some of the principal cities of the North and East to impress them with the greatness of the American people. The hostages, after confinement in Fort Monroe, were liberated at Fort Armstrong, Rock Island, Ill., in August, 1833. Black Hawk being deposed, Keokuk was made chief of the Sacs and Foxes, when the former settled on the Des Moines River. Black Hawk died Oct. 3, 1838.

Black Hills, a group of mountains situated chiefly in South Dakota and the northwestern part of Wyoming. Several of the peaks reach an altitude of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the surrounding plain, and the highest summit of all is Mount Harney, which is 7,400 feet. In 1875 the Dakota Indians ceded the region to the United States, and immediately a valuable mining industry sprang up. In 1875–91 the district yielded gold to the value of $45,000,000, and silver to the value of more than $2,000,000. Valuable deposits of tin have also been found on Mount Harney. For later productions in this region see GOLD; SOUTH DAKOTA.

Black Republican, the name applied in derision to the REPUBLICAN PARTY (*q. v.*) formed in 1856, because of their friendship for the black bondsmen in the Southern States and their efforts for the restriction of the slave system of labor.

Black Rock, SURPRISE OF. On July 11, 1813, Lieut.-Col. Cecil Bisshopp, with a motley party of regulars, Canadians, and Indians, about 400 in number, crossed the Niagara River and landed a little below Black Rock (which was a naval station, two miles below Buffalo), just before daylight. His object was to surprise and capture the garrison, and especially the large quantity of stores collected there by the Americans; also the shipyard. These were defended by only about 200 militia and a dozen men in a blockhouse. There were some infantry and

BISSHOPP'S MONUMENT.

dragoon recruits from the South on their way to Fort George, besides a little more than 100 Indians under the young Cornplanter, who had been educated at Philadelphia, and had gone back to his blanket and feather head-dress. The former were under the command of Gen. Peter B. Porter, then at his home near Black Rock. Bisshopp surprised the camp at Black Rock, when the militia fled to Buffalo, leaving their artillery behind. Porter narrowly escaped capture in his own house. He hastened towards Buffalo, rallied a part of the militia, and, with fifty volunteer citizens, proceeded to attack the invaders. At the same time forty Indians rose from an ambush in a ravine and rushed upon the invaders with the appalling war-whoop. The frightened British, after a very brief contest, fled in confusion to their boats, and, with their commander, hastily departed for the Canada shore, followed by volleys from American muskets. In the flight Bisshopp was mortally wounded. He was a gallant young man, only thirty years of age. He was taken to his quarters at Lundy's Lane, where he died five days after he received his wound. Over his remains, in a small cemetery on the south side of Lundy's Lane, more than thirty years afterwards, the sister of the young soldier erected a handsome monument.

Black Warrior Seizure. Prior to February, 1854, there had been several causes for irritation between the Spanish authorities of Cuba and the United States, on account of invasions of the territory of the former from that of the latter. Under cover of a shallow pretence, the steamship *Black Warrior*, belonging to citizens of the United States, was seized Feb. 28, at Havana, by order of the Spanish authorities in Cuba, and the vessel and cargo were declared confiscated. This flagrant outrage aroused a bitter feeling against those authorities; and a motion was made in the House of Representatives to suspend the neutrality laws and compel those officials to act more justly. A better measure was adopted. A special messenger was sent to Madrid, with instructions to the American minister there, Mr. Soulé, to demand from the Spanish government immediate redress in the form of indemnification to the owners of the vessel in the amount of $300,000. The Spanish government justified the outrage, and this justification, operating with other causes for irritation, led to the famous consultation of American ministers in Europe known as the "Ostend Conference." (See OSTEND MANIFESTO.) Meanwhile the perpetrators of the outrage became alarmed, and the captain-general of Cuba, with pretended generosity, offered to give up the vessel and cargo on the payment, by the owners, of a fine of $6,000. They complied, but under protest. The governments of the United States and Spain finally made an amicable settlement.

Blackburn, JOSEPH CLAY STYLES, lawyer; born in Woodford county, Ky., Oct. 1, 1838; was graduated at Centre College, Danville, in 1857; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War; was elected to the legislature in 1871, to Congress in 1874, and to the United States Senate in 1885, 1891, and 1901. He was a leader in the free-coinage movement.

Blackburn, LUKE PRYOR, physician; born in Fayette county, Ky., June 16,

1816; was graduated at Transylvania University, Lexington, Ky., in 1834, and settled in that city. He removed to Natchez, Miss., in 1846, and when yellow fever broke out in New Orleans in 1848, as health-officer of Natchez he ordered the first quarantine against New Orleans that had ever been established in the Mississippi Valley. He was a surgeon on the staff of the Confederate General Price during the Civil War. When yellow fever appeared in Memphis, he hastened to that city, and organized corps of physicians and nurses, and later went to Hickman, Ky., and gave aid to the yellow fever sufferers there. In 1879 he was elected governor of Kentucky. Dr. Blackburn established the Blackburn Sanitarium for Nervous and Mental Diseases in 1884. He died in Frankfort, Ky., Sept. 14, 1887.

Blackburn's Ford, BATTLE AT. Preliminary to the severe conflict at Bull Run (July 21, 1861) was a sharp fight on the same stream, at Blackburn's Ford. This ford was guarded by a Confederate force under Gen. James Longstreet. Some National troops under Gen. D. Tyler, a part of McDowell's advancing army, went out towards this ford on a reconnoissance on the 18th. The troops consisted of Richardson's brigade, a squadron of cavalry, and Ayres's battery. Sherman's brigade was held in reserve. He found the Confederates there in strong force, partly concealed by woods. Hoping to draw their fire and discover their exact position, a 20-pound gun of Ayres's battery fired a shot at random among them. A battery in view only responded with grape-shot. Richardson sent forward the 2d Michigan Regiment as skirmishers, who were soon engaged in a hot contest on low ground. The 3d Michigan, 1st Massachusetts, and 12th New York pushed forward, and were soon fighting severely. Cavalry and two howitzers were fiercely assailed by musketry and a concealed battery, when the Nationals, greatly outnumbered, recoiled and withdrew behind Ayres's battery on a hill. Just then Sherman came up with his brigade, when Ayres's battery again opened fire, and for an hour an artillery duel was kept up, the Confederates responding, gun for gun. Satisfied that he could not flank the Confederates, McDowell ordered the whole body to fall back to Centreville. The Confederates called this the "Battle of Bull Run," and that which the Nationals designate by that name they called the "Battle of Manassas." The loss of the combatants at Blackburn's Ford was nearly equal — that of the Nationals seventy-three and of the Confederates seventy.

Blackfeet Indians, a confederacy of North American Indians, also called the Siksika. It is one of the most important tribes in the Northwest, and is composed of three divisions: the Blackfeet proper; the Kino, or Blood; and the Piegan. They occupy northern Montana and the adjacent part of Canada, a region extending from the Rocky Mountains to the Milk River at its junction with the Missouri, and from the Belly and Saskatchewan rivers in Canada to the Mussel Shell River in Montana. In 1900 they were believed to number about 7,000. There were 2,022 Bloods and Piegans at the Blackfeet agency in Montana, a number of Blackfeet Sioux at the Cheyenne River agency in South Dakota and the Standing Rock agency in North Dakota, and the Siksika and the remainder of the Bloods, or Kinos, were in Canada.

Blackmar, FRANK WILSON, historian; born in West Springfield, Pa., Nov. 3, 1854; was graduated at the University of the Pacific in 1881; became Professor of History and Sociology in the University of Kansas in 1889. He is the author of *Spanish Institutions in the Southwest; Federal and State Aid to Higher Education; The Story of Human Progress,* etc.

Blackstock's, BATTLE AT. In 1780 General Sumter collected a small force near Charlotte, N. C., and with these returned to South Carolina. (See FISHING CREEK.) For many weeks he annoyed the British and Tories very much. Cornwallis, who called him the "Carolina Gamecock," tried hard to catch him. Tarleton, Wemyss, and others were sent out for the purpose. On the night of Nov. 12 Major Wemyss, at the head of a British detachment, fell upon him near the Broad River, but was repulsed. Eight days afterwards he was encamped at Blackstock's plantation, on the Tyger River, in Union District, where he was joined by some Georgians under Colonels Clarke and Twiggs. There he was attack-

ed by Tarleton, when a severe battle ensued (Nov. 20). The British were repulsed with a loss in killed and wounded of about 300, while the Americans lost only three killed and five wounded. General Sumter was among the latter, and was detained from the field several months.

Blackstone, WILLIAM, pioneer, supposed to have been graduated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, in 1617, and to have become a minister in the Church of England. In 1623 he removed from Plymouth to the peninsula of Shawmut, where Boston now stands, and was living there in 1630, when Governor Winthrop arrived at Charlestown. On April 1, 1633, he was given a grant of fifty acres, but not liking his Puritan neighbors he sold his estate in 1634. He then moved to a place a few miles north of Providence, locating on the river which now bears his name. He is said to have planted the first orchard in Rhode Island, and also the first one in Massachusetts. He was the first white settler in Rhode Island, but took no part in the founding of the colony. The cellar of the house where he lived is still shown, and a little hill near by where he was accustomed to read is known as "Study Hill." He died in Rehoboth, Mass., May 26, 1675.

Blackwater, BATTLE AT THE. Late in 1861 the Department of Missouri was enlarged, and Gen. Henry W. Halleck was placed in command of it. General Price had been rapidly gathering Confederate forces in Missouri; and Gen. John Pope was placed in command of a considerable body of troops to oppose him. Pope acted with great vigor and skill. He made a short, sharp, and decisive campaign. Detachments from his camp struck telling blows here and there. One was inflicted by Gen. Jefferson C. Davis on the Blackwater, near Milford, which much disheartened the Confederates of that State. Davis found the Confederates in a wooded bottom opposite his own forces. He carried a well-guarded bridge by storm, and fell upon the Confederates with such vigor that they retreated in confusion, and were so closely pursued that they surrendered, in number about 1,300, cavalry and infantry. The spoils of victory were 800 horses and mules, 1,000 stand of arms, and over seventy wagons loaded with tents, baggage, ammunition, and supplies of every kind. In a brief space of time the power of the Confederates in that quarter was paralyzed, and Halleck complimented Pope on his "brilliant campaign."

Blackwell, ANTOINETTE LOUISA BROWN, minister; born in Henrietta, N. Y., May 20, 1825; was graduated at Oberlin College, O., in 1847, and at the Theological School at Oberlin in 1850; began public speaking in 1846 and preaching in 1848. She settled as pastor of an orthodox Congregational church at South Butler and Savannah, N. Y., in 1852, but resigned the next year, and later became a Unitarian. She has been prominent in woman suffrage and other movements. Her publications include *Studies in General Science; The Island Neighbors; The Sexes Throughout Nature; The Physical Basis of Immortality; The Philosophy of Individuality,* etc.

Bladensburg, BATTLE AT. In 1814 General Winder warned the President and his cabinet of the danger to the national capital from a contemplated invasion by the British. The obstinate and opinionated Secretary of War (Armstrong) would not listen; but when Admiral Cochrane appeared in Chesapeake Bay with a powerful land and naval force, the alarmed Secretary gave Winder a *carte blanche,* almost, to do as he pleased in defending the capital. Com. Joshua Barney was in command of a flotilla in the bay, composed of an armed schooner and thirteen barges. These were driven into the Patuxent River, up which the flotilla was taken to a point beyond the reach of the British vessels, and where it might assist in the defence of either Washington or Baltimore, whichever city the British might attack. To destroy this flotilla, more than 5,000 regulars, marines, and negroes were landed at Benedict, with three cannon; and the British commander, Gen. Robert Ross, boasted that he would wipe out Barney's fleet and dine in Washington the next Sunday. The boast being known, great exertions were made for the defence of the capital. General Winder, relieved from restraint, called upon the veteran Gen. Samuel Smith, of Baltimore, to bring out his division of militia, and General Van Ness, of Washington, was requested

to station two brigades of the militia of the District of Columbia at Alexandria. Winder also called for volunteers from all the militia districts of Maryland. General Smith promptly responded, but the call for volunteers was not very effectual.

Meanwhile the British, who had pursued Barney up the Patuxent in barges, were disappointed. Seeing no chance for escape, the commodore blew up his flotilla at Pig Point (Aug. 22, 1814), and with his men hastened to join Winder at his headquarters. When General Ross arrived, perceiving Barney's flotilla to be a smoking ruin, he passed on to upper Marlboro, where a road led directly to Washington, D. C., leaving Admiral Cockburn in charge of the British flotilla of barges. To oppose this formidable force, Winder had less than 3,000 effective men, most of them undisciplined; and he prudently retreated towards Washington, followed by Ross, who had been joined by Cockburn and his sailors ready for plunder. That night (April 23) the British encamped within 10 miles of the capital. At the latter place there was great excitement, and there were sleepless vigils kept by soldiers and civilians. Uncertain whether Washington City or Fort Washington was the intended destination of the invaders, Winder left a force near Bladensburg, and with other troops closely watched the highways leading in other directions.

The anxious President and his cabinet were awake that night, and at dawn the next morning (Aug. 24), while Winder was in consultation with them at his headquarters, a courier came in hot haste to tell them that the British were marching on Bladensburg. Winder sent troops immediately to reinforce those already there, and soon followed in person. The overwhelming number of the invaders put his little army in great peril. He was compelled to fight or surrender; he chose to fight, and at a little past noon a severe contest began. The troops under General Winder, including those from Baltimore (about 2,200) and detachments at various points watching the movements of the British, with the men of Barney's flotilla, were about 7,000 strong, of whom 900 were enlisted men. But many of these were at distant points of observation. The cavalry did not exceed 400. The little army had twenty-six pieces of cannon, of which twenty were only 6-pounders. With these troops and weapons Winder might have driven back the invaders, had he been untrammelled by the Secretary of War and the rest of the seemingly bewildered cabinet. As the British descended the hills and pressed towards the bridge at Bladensburg, they commenced hurling rockets at the exposed Americans. They were repulsed at first by the American artillery, but being continually reinforced, they pushed across the stream (east branch of the Potomac) in the face of a deadly

THE BRIDGE AT BLADENSBURG IN 1861.

fire. A terrible conflict ensued, when another shower of rockets made the regiments of militia break and flee in the wildest disorder. Winder tried in vain to rally them. Another corps held its position gallantly for a while, when it, too, fled in disorder, covered by riflemen. The first and second lines of the Americans were now dispersed. The British still pressed on and encountered Commodore Barney and his gallant flotilla-men. After a desperate struggle, in which the commodore was severely wounded, Winder ordered a general retreat. Barney was too badly hurt to be removed, and was taken prisoner. He was immediately paroled.

The great body of the Americans who were not dispersed retreated towards Montgomery Court-House, Md., leaving the battle-field in full possession of the British. The Americans lost twenty-six killed and fifty wounded. The British loss was more than 500 killed and wounded, among them several officers of rank and distinction. The battle lasted about four hours. The principal troops engaged were militia and volunteers of the District of Columbia; militia from Baltimore, under the command of General Stansbury; various detachments of Maryland militia; a regiment of Virginia militia, under Col. George Minor, 600 strong, with 100 cavalry. The regular army contributed 300 men; Barney's flotilla, 400. There were 120 marines from the Washington navy-yard, with two 18-pound and three 12-pound cannon. There were also various companies of volunteer cavalry from the District, Maryland, and Virginia, 300 in number, under Lieutenant-Colonel Tilghman and Majors O. H. Williams and C. Sterett. There was also a squadron of United States dragoons, commanded by Major Laval.

Bladensburg Duelling Field. The first notable meeting on this spot was in 1808, between Barent Gardenier, member of Congress from New York, and George W. Campbell, member from Tennessee. The quarrel was a political one. Gardenier was much opposed to the embargo and attacked it fiercely on the floor of Congress. Campbell, as one of the leaders of the administration party, was greatly incensed at this speech. In his reply he assailed Gardenier with such a torrent of personal abuse that the latter was provoked to a challenge. In the encounter the member from New York was dangerously wounded, but subsequently recovered, and, being a great favorite with his constituents, was re-elected to Congress. Campbell was elected to the Senate in 1811, and in 1814 was appointed Secretary of the Treasury, a position which he resigned, however, after holding it about a year. Bladensburg from that time became a favorite resort for those whose wounded honor could find no balm save through the bloody code of the duello. In 1814 Ensign Edward Hopkins, of the army, whose parents resided at Bladensburg, was shot on this field within sight of his home. Feb. 6, 1819, a most painful and desperate encounter occurred there between Gen. Armistead T. Mason and Col. John M. McCarty, who were cousins, and both of Virginia. Mason was at the time a United States Senator. The two gentlemen had quarrelled at an election, and McCarty was the challenger. It was arranged that they should fight with muskets, each loaded with a single ball, at 4 paces. When in position the muzzle of their pieces nearly touched, and at the word both fired together, and Mason fell dead, and McCarty was seriously wounded. The famous Decatur-Barron duel occurred at Bladensburg, March 22, 1820. Stephen Decatur and James Barron had both been captains in the United States navy. Barron had been found guilty of the charge of neglecting his duty while in command of the *Chesapeake*, and had been suspended from the service. Decatur had served on both the court of inquiry and the court-martial trying the case. Barron had subsequently applied for restoration of his rank, and had been opposed by Decatur, not from personal reasons, but from principles of honor. This was the cause of the enmity between the two officers, and a long and bitter correspondence, which finally culminated in a duel. They fought with pistols at 8 paces, and Decatur was fatally and his antagonist dangerously wounded at the first fire. They held a brief conversation as they lay on the ground, exchanging full forgiveness of each other. Before the fatal shots were fired it is said that Barron remarked to Decatur that he hoped

on meeting in another world they would be better friends than in this, to which Decatur replied, "I have never been your enemy, sir." A number of other duels have been fought at Bladensburg, among which may be mentioned that between a Treasury clerk named Randall and a Mr. Fox, of Washington, in 1821, in which the latter was killed at the first fire; and that between two members of Congress, Bynum, of North Carolina, and Jenifer, of Maryland, in 1836, which was the last meeting on this famous field. This last was fortunately bloodless; it was brought about by a political quarrel, and after six shots had been exchanged without damage to either party the affair was amicably settled.

Blaine, JAMES GILLESPIE, statesman; born in West Brownsville, Pa., Jan. 31, 1830; was graduated at Washington College in 1847; and passed several years in teaching. In 1854 he removed to Augusta, Me., and with that State he was thereafter identified. He edited the Kennebec *Journal* and the Portland *Advertiser*, and was a member of the legislature from 1859 to 1862; in the last two years he was speaker of the House, and about the same time he became powerful in the Republican organization of the State. His service in the national House of Representatives extended from 1863 to 1876, and in the United States Senate from 1876 to 1881. Blaine was among the most aggressive of the party leaders, was a ready debater, and an expert in parliamentary law. From 1869 to 1875 he was speaker. In 1876 he was one of the chief candidates for the Presidential nomination, but he and Bristow, the leaders, were set aside for Hayes. In 1880 Grant and Blaine were the candidates respectively of the two great wings of the party, and again a "dark horse," Garfield, was selected. President Garfield appointed Senator Blaine Secretary of State, which post he resigned in December, 1881, soon after the accession of President Arthur. In 1884 Mr. Blaine received the Presidential nomination on the fourth ballot. An extraordinary campaign followed between his adherents and those of Gov. Grover Cleveland, the Democratic candidate, and the election turned on the result in New York, which was lost to Mr. Blaine by 1,047 votes. The defection of the Mugwumps, the vote of the Prohibitionists, and the fatal "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion" utterance of Dr. Burchard, have all been assigned as causes of his defeat. Mr. Blaine then resumed his literary work and published his *Twenty Years of Congress*, in 2 volumes, and in

JAMES GILLESPIE BLAINE.

1888 positively declined the use of his name for a renomination, but received some votes nevertheless. President Harrison in 1889 called him to his old portfolio in the Department of State. The salient points in his administration were the Pan-American schemes and the doctrine of reciprocity. Secretary Blaine suddenly resigned in 1892, and was an unsuccessful candidate for the nomination for President that year, being defeated by Harrison. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 27, 1893. Blaine was celebrated for his personal "magnetism," and after 1876 was universally known as the "Plumed Knight," a phrase applied to him by Robert G. Ingersoll in nominating him for the Presidency. See PROTECTION.

Oration on President Garfield.—The following is the concluding portion of Mr. Blaine's oration, delivered before both Houses of Congress on Feb. 27, 1882:

Garfield's ambition for the success of his administration was high. With strong caution and conservatism in his nature, he was in no danger of attempting rash experiments or of resorting to the empiri-

cism of statesmanship. But he believed that renewed and closer attention should be given to questions affecting the material interests and commercial prospects of 50,000,000 people. He believed that our continental relations, extensive and undeveloped as they are, involved responsibility, and could be cultivated into profitable friendship or be abandoned to harmful indifference or lasting enmity. He believed with equal confidence that an essential forerunner to a new era of national progress must be a feeling of contentment in every section of the Union, and a generous belief that the benefits and burdens of government would be common to all. Himself a conspicuous illustration of what ability and ambition may do under republican institutions, he loved his country with a passion of patriotic devotion, and every waking thought was given to her advancement. He was an American in all his aspirations, and he looked to the destiny and influence of the United States with the philosophic composure of Jefferson and the demonstrative confidence of John Adams.

The political events which disturbed the President's serenity for many weeks before that fateful day in July form an important chapter in his career, and, in his own judgment, involved questions of principle and of right which are vitally essential to the constitutional administration of the federal government. It would be out of place here and now to speak the language of controversy; but the events referred to, however they may continue to be a source of contention with others, have become, so far as Garfield is concerned, as much a matter of history as his heroism at Chickamauga, or his illustrious service in the House. Detail is not needful, and personal antagonism shall not be rekindled by any word uttered to-day. The motives of those opposing him are not to be here adversely interpreted nor their course harshly characterized. But of the dead President this is to be said, and said because his own speech is forever silenced and he can be no more heard except through the fidelity and love of surviving friends: from the beginning to the end of the controversy he so much deplored, the President was never for one moment actuated by any motive of gain to himself or of loss to others. Least of all men did he harbor revenge, rarely did he even show resentment, and malice was not in his nature. He was congenially employed only in the exchange of good offices and the doing of kindly deeds.

There was not an hour, from the beginning of the trouble till the fatal shot entered his body, when the President would not gladly, for the sake of restoring harmony, have retraced any step he had taken if such retracing had merely involved consequences personal to himself. . . .

The religious element in Garfield's character was deep and earnest. In his early youth he espoused the faith of the Disciples, a sect of that great Baptist communion which in different ecclesiastical establishments is so numerous and so influential throughout all parts of the United States. . . .

The liberal tendency which he anticipated as the result of wider culture was fully realized. He was emancipated from mere sectarian belief, and with eager interest pushed his investigations in the direction of modern progressive thought. He followed with quickening step in the paths of exploration and speculation so fearlessly trodden by Darwin, by Huxley, by Tyndall, and by other living scientists of the radical and advanced type. His own Church, binding its disciples by no formulated creed, but accepting the Old and New Testaments as the word of God, with unbiased liberality of private interpretation, favored, if it did not stimulate, the spirit of investigation. . . .

The crowning characteristic of General Garfield's religious opinions, as, indeed, of all his opinions, was his liberality. In all things he had charity. Tolerance was of his nature. He respected in others the qualities which he possessed himself—sincerity of conviction and frankness of expression. With him the inquiry was not so much what a man believes, but does he believe it? The lines of his friendship and his confidence encircled men of every creed, and men of no creed, and to the end of his life, on his ever-lengthening list of friends, were to be found the names of a pious Catholic priest and of an honest-minded and generous-hearted free-thinker.

On the morning of Saturday, July 2, the President was a contented and happy man

—not in an ordinary degree, but joyfully, almost boyishly happy. On his way to the railroad station, to which he drove slowly, in conscious enjoyment of the beautiful morning, with an unwonted sense of leisure and a keen anticipation of pleasure, his talk was all in the grateful and gratulatory vein. He felt that after four months of trial his administration was strong in its grasp of affairs, strong in popular favor, and destined to grow stronger; that grave difficulties confronting him at his inauguration had been safely passed; that trouble lay behind him and not before him; that he was soon to meet the wife whom he loved, now recovering from an illness which had but lately disquieted and at times almost unnerved him; that he was going to his Alma Mater to renew the most cherished associations of his young manhood, and to exchange greetings with those whose deepening interest had followed every step of his upward progress from the day he entered upon his college course until he had attained the loftiest elevation in the gift of his countrymen.

Surely, if happiness can ever come from the honors or triumphs of this world, on that quiet July morning, James A. Garfield may well have been a happy man. No foreboding of evil haunted him: nor slightest premonition of danger clouded his sky. His terrible fate was upon him in an instant. One moment he stood erect, strong, confident in the years stretching peacefully out before him. The next he lay wounded, bleeding, helpless, doomed to weary weeks of torture, to silence, and the grave.

Great in life, he was surpassingly great in death. For no cause, in the very frenzy of wantonness and wickedness, by the red hand of murder, he was thrust from the full tide of this world's interest, from its hopes, its aspirations, its victories, into the visible presence of death—and he did not quail. Not alone for the one short moment in which, stunned and dazed, he could give up life, hardly aware of its relinquishment, but through days of deadly languor, through weeks of agony, that was not less agony because silently borne, with clear sight and calm courage, he looked into his open grave. What blight and ruin met his anguished eyes, whose lips may tell—what brilliant broken plans, what baffled high ambitions, what sundering of strong, warm manhood's friendships, what bitter rending of sweet household ties! Behind him a proud, expectant nation, a great host of sustaining friends, a cherished and happy mother, wearing the full, rich honors of her early toil and tears; the wife of his youth, whose whole life lay in his; the little boys not yet emerged from childhood's day of frolic; the fair young daughter; the sturdy sons just springing into closest companionship, claiming every day and every day rewarding a father's love and care; and in his heart the eager, rejoicing power to meet all demand. Before him, desolation and great darkness! And his soul was not shaken. His countrymen were thrilled with instant, profound, and universal sympathy. Masterful in his mortal weakness, he became the centre of a nation's love, enshrined in the prayers of a world. But all the love and all the sympathy could not share with him his suffering. He trod the wine-press alone. With unfaltering front he faced death. With unfailing tenderness he took leave of life. Above the demoniac hiss of the assassin's bullet he heard the voice of God. With simple resignation he bowed to the divine decree.

As the end drew near, his early craving for the sea returned. The stately mansion of power had been to him the wearisome hospital of pain, and he begged to be taken from its prison walls, from its oppressive, stifling air, from its homelessness and its helplessness. Gently, silently, the love of a great people bore the pale sufferer to the longed-for healing of the sea, to live or to die, as God should will, within sight of its heaving billows, within sound of its manifold voices. With wan, fevered face tenderly lifted to the cooling breeze, he looked out wistfully upon the ocean's changing wonders; on its far sails, whitening in the morning light; on its restless waves, rolling shoreward to break and die beneath the noonday sun; on the red clouds of evening, arching low to the horizon; on the serene and shining pathway of the stars. Let us think that his dying eyes read a mystic meaning which only the rapt and parting soul may know. Let us believe that in the silence of the receding world he heard the great waves

breaking on a farther shore, and felt already on his wasted brow the breath of the eternal morning.

Blair, FRANCIS PRESTON, statesman; born in Abingdon, Va., April 12, 1791; was originally a supporter of Henry Clay, but became an ardent Jackson man in consequence of the agitation over the BANK OF THE UNITED STATES (*q. v.*), and at the suggestion of the President established *The Globe* in Washington, D. C., which was the recognized organ of the Democratic party until 1845, when President Polk displaced him. The Spanish mission was offered to Mr. Blair by the President, but refused. In 1864 his efforts led to the unsatisfactory peace conference of Feb. 3, 1865. He died in Silver Spring, Md., Oct. 18, 1876.

Blair, FRANCIS PRESTON, JR., military officer; born in Lexington, Ky., Feb. 19, 1821; was educated at the College of New Jersey, and took an active part in politics early in life. The FREE-SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*) at St. Louis elected him to a seat in Congress in 1856, and he acted and voted with the Republicans several years. He joined the Union army in 1861, and rose to the rank of major-general of volunteers. In 1864 he commanded a corps of Sherman's army in the campaign against Atlanta, and in his march to the sea. Having joined the Democratic party, he was its unsuccessful candidate for the Vice-Presidency in 1868. In January, 1871, he was chosen United States Senator. He died in St. Louis, Mo., July 8, 1875.

Blair, HENRY WILLIAM, legislator; born in Campton, N. H., Dec. 6, 1834; enlisted in the 15th New Hampshire Volunteers at the opening of the Civil War, and became lieutenant-colonel; was wounded at Fort Hudson. He was a member of Congress in 1875–79, and of the United States Senate in 1879–91. He was the author of the famous illiteracy bill which proposed to distribute $77,000,000 to the States in proportion to their illiteracy. This bill was passed by the Senate three times, but failed to become a law. Senator Blair was appointed United States minister to China, but resigned, as the Chinese government objected to him because of his opposition to Chinese immigration to the United States.

Blair, JAMES, educator; born in Scotland in 1656; was sent to Virginia as a missionary in 1685; and in 1692 obtained the charter of William and Mary College, of which he was the first president. He published *The State of His Majesty's Colony in Virginia,* in 1727. He died in Williamsburg, Va., Aug. 1, 1743.

Blair, JOHN, jurist; born in Williamsburg, Va., in 1732; was educated at the College of William and Mary; studied law at the Temple, London; soon rose to the first rank as a lawyer; was a member of the House of Burgesses as early as 1765, and was one of the dissolved Virginia Assembly who met at the Raleigh Tavern, in the summer of 1774, and drafted the Virginia non-importation agreement. He was one of the committee who, in June, 1776, drew up the plan for the Virginia State government, and in 1777 was elected a judge of the Court of Appeals; then chief-justice, and, in 1780, a judge of the High Court of Chancery. He was one of the framers of the national Constitution; and, in 1789, Washington appointed him a judge of the United States Supreme Court. He resigned his seat on the bench of that court in 1796, and died in Williamsburg, Va., Aug. 31, 1800.

Blair, JOHN INSLEY, philanthropist; born near Belvidere, N. J., Aug. 22, 1802; became a merchant and banker early in life, and in his latter years was the individual owner of a greater amount of railroad property than any other man in the world. He loaned more than $1,000,000 to the federal government in the early part of the Civil War; built and endowed the Presbyterian Academy at Blairstown, N. J., at a cost of more than $600,000; rebuilt Grinnell College, in Iowa; and erected Blair Hall for Princeton University. He was equally liberal to Lafayette College. He is said to have built more than 100 churches in various parts of the West, and founded many villages and towns along the lines of his many railroads. He died in Blairstown, N. J., Dec. 2, 1899.

Blair, MONTGOMERY, statesman; born in Franklin county, Ky., May 10, 1813; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1835, and served a while in the 2d Artillery in Florida, against the Seminole Indians. He resigned in 1836; became a practising lawyer in St. Louis,

Mo., in 1837; from 1839 to 1843 was United States district attorney for the district of Missouri, and was judge of the St. Louis Court of Common Pleas from 1843 to 1849. In 1842 he was mayor of St. Louis. President Pierce appointed him solicitor to the United States Court of Claims in 1855, but, becoming a Republican, President Buchanan removed him. Mr. Blair was counsel for the plaintiffs in the famous DRED SCOTT CASE (*q. v.*). He was appointed Postmaster-General in March, 1861, and served about three years. He died in Silver Spring, Md., July 27, 1883.

Blake, HOMER CRANE, naval officer; born in Cleveland, O., Feb. 1, 1822; entered the navy as a midshipman in 1840; was promoted lieutenant-commander in 1862, and in 1863, while in command of the *Hatteras*, off Galveston, Tex., was ordered to chase a suspicious vessel, which proved to be the Confederate cruiser *Alabama*. The *Hatteras* was no match for the cruiser, and Blake was obliged to surrender. Within ten minutes of his surrender the *Hatteras* went down. He died Jan. 21, 1880.

Blake, LILLIE DEVEREUX UMSTEAD, reformer; born in Raleigh, N. C., in 1835. In 1869 she became active in the woman suffrage movement, and was president of the New York State Woman Suffrage Association for many years. She first married Frank G. Quay Umstead (died in 1859), and then in 1866 Grenfill Blake (died in 1896). Her writings include *Southwold; Rockford; Fettered for Life; Woman's Place To-day*, a reply to Dr. Morgan Dix's *Lenten Lectures on Women*, etc. In 1901 she was president of the Civic and Equality Union.

Blake, WILLIAM PHIPPS, mineralogist; born in New York, June 1, 1826; was graduated at Yale Scientific School in 1852. He was the geologist and mineralogist for the United States Pacific Railroad expedition in 1853; edited the *Mining Magazine* in 1859–60; and afterwards engaged in mining, engineering, and exploration. In 1864 he became Professor of Mineralogy and Geology in the College of California. In 1901 he was director of the School of Mines in the University of Arizona, and also Territorial geologist. He has been identified with the great international expositions since 1853. He is the author of *Geological Reconnoissance of California; Silver-Ores and Silver-Mines; Ceramic Art and Glass; Life of Captain Jonathan Mix*, etc.

Blakeley, JOHNSTON, naval officer; born at Seaford, Down, Ireland, in October, 1771; was educated at the University of North Carolina, and entered the navy, as midshipman, Feb. 5, 1800. He was made lieutenant in 1807, master-commander in 1813, and captain in 1814. He commanded the brig *Enterprise* in protecting the American coast-trade. In August, 1814, he was appointed to the command of the *Wasp*, which captured

JOHNSTON BLAKELEY.

the *Reindeer*. For this exploit Congress voted him a gold medal. Capturing the brig *Atlanta* on Sept. 21, that vessel was sent to Savannah, and brought the last intelligence of the *Wasp*. It is supposed she foundered in a gale, as no tidings were ever heard of her afterwards.

Blakely, BATTLE OF. Ever since Steele's arrival from Pensacola Blakely had been held in a state of siege. By the fall of Spanish Fort, water communication between Blakely and Mobile had been cut off. It was defended by abatis, *chevaux-de-frise*, and torpedoes, and had a

ditch in the rear of these. In front of these Canby formed a strong line of battle, Hawkins's negro troops being on the right, the divisions of Veatch and Andrews in the centre, and Garrard's division on the left. On Sunday afternoon, April 8, 1865, when the assault began, a heavy thunder-storm was gathering. There was a fierce struggle with obstacles in front of the fort. The whole National line participated in the assault. Great guns were making fearful lanes through their ranks. Tempests of grape and canister from the armament of the fort made dreadful havoc. At length the colored brigade were ordered to carry the works. They sprang forward with the shout, "Remember Fort Pillow!" They went over the Confederate embankments, scattering everything before them. The victory for the Nationals was complete. The struggle had been brief but very severe. The Nationals lost about 1,000 men; the Confederates, 500. The spoils were nearly forty pieces of artillery, 4,000 small-arms, sixteen battle-flags, and a vast quantity of ammunition.

Blanco, RAMON Y ARENAS, military officer; born in San Sebastian, Spain, in 1833; entered the army as a lieutenant in 1855; was made a captain in 1858; and in the war with San Domingo gained promotion to lieutenant-colonel. In 1894 he was sent to the Philippines as governor-general of the province of Mindanao. His career in the Philippines was characterized by acts of extreme cruelty. For his service there he was appointed a marshal in 1895. Unable to quell the rebellion in the islands, he resigned his office, and, returning to Spain, was assigned to the command of the Army of the North. He there made a brilliant record against the Carlists, and carried by storm Peña Plata. For this achievement he was created Marquis de Peña Plata. In October, 1897, he succeeded GEN. VALERIANO WEYLER (*q. v.*) as governor-general of Cuba. One of his earliest acts after assuming authority there was a reluctant acquiescence in the desire of the people of the United States, as expressed by their Congress, to provide the reconcentrados with food, clothing, and medical supplies. President McKinley appointed a Central Cuban Relief Committee to raise funds for purchasing the various articles needed, and these were forwarded to the island and distributed under the direction of Clara Barton.

When the *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana, Blanco summoned the troops and firemen of the city to aid in the rescue of the survivors, and expressed

RAMON Y ARENAS BLANCO.

strong regrets on the appalling disaster. After the United States made the declaration of war, he assumed command of all troops and military operations on the island. It has been stated that it was by his imperative commands, supported by orders from Madrid, of a similar tenor, that ADMIRAL CERVERA (*q. v.*) made the unsuccessful attempt to escape from Santiago Harbor with his fleet. After the surrender of the Spanish army at Santiago, Blanco asked to be relieved of his command, on the ground that having urged the Cubans to maintain the war, it would be difficult for him to prepare them for the conditions involved in the protocol of peace. His resignation was accepted, and the duty of formally transferring Cuba to the protection of the United States was devolved upon a subordinate officer, Blanco returning to Spain. See CUBA.

Bland, RICHARD, statesman; born in Virginia, May 6, 1710; was educated at the College of William and Mary; became a fine classical scholar, and was an oracle touching the rights of the colonies. He was a member of the House of Burgesses from 1745 until his death—a period of thirty-one years; and he was one of the most active of its patriotic members. In 1774 he was a delegate in the Continental Congress, but declined to serve the next year. In 1766 he published one of the

ablest tracts of the time, entitled *An Inquiry into the Rights of the British Colonies*. He died in Williamsburg, Va., Oct. 26, 1776.

Bland, Richard Parks, lawyer; born near Hartford, Ky., Aug. 19, 1835; received an academic education, and later settled in Nevada, beginning the practice of law in Virginia City. Removing to Missouri, he practised law in Rolla in 1865–69, and then at Lebanon. He was a member of Congress in 1873–95, and from 1897 till his death; and was the recognized leader in the House of the free-silver movement. At the National Democratic Convention in 1896 he received many votes for the Presidential nomination, which was ultimately given to William J. Bryan (*q. v.*). Mr. Bland was the author of the free-silver coinage bill, which afterwards became known as the Bland-Allison act. He died in Lebanon, Mo., June 15, 1899. See Bland Silver Bill.

Bland, Theodoric, military officer; born in Prince George county, Va., in 1742; was, by his maternal side, fourth in descent from Pocahontas (*q. v.*), his mother being Jane Rolfe. John Randolph was his nephew. He received the degree of M.D. at Edinburgh, returned home in 1764, and practised medicine. Bland led volunteers in opposing Governor Dunmore, and published some bitter letters against that officer over the signature of "Cassius." He became captain of the 1st Troop of Virginia cavalry, and joined the main Continental army as lieutenant-colonel in 1777. Brave, vigilant, and judicious, he was intrusted with the command of Burgoyne's captive troops at Albemarle Barracks in Virginia; and was member of the Continental Congress in 1780–83. In the legislature and in the convention of his State he opposed the adoption of the national Constitution; but represented Virginia in the first Congress held under it, dying while it was in session. Colonel Bland was a poet as well as a soldier and patriot. The *Bland Papers*, containing many valuable memorials of the Revolution, were edited and published by Charles Campbell in 1840–43. He died in New York City, June 1, 1790.

Bland Silver Bill, the original title of a notable financial measure drawn up by Representative Richard P. Bland, and passed by the House of Representatives in 1877. It was the culmination of a long agitation in and out of Congress for the free and unlimited coinage of silver by all the mints in the United States, and the bill originally provided simply for such coinage. The coinage of the silver dollar had been abandoned since its demonetization by an act of Congress in 1873, and the leading bimetallists were anxious to have it restored and placed on an equality with the gold dollar as a standard of value. Under the provisions of the Bland bill these objects were expected to be accomplished. When, however, the bill was sent to the Senate, it received a treatment directly opposite to its original purpose, because the clause providing for the free and unlimited coinage of silver was stricken out; but the bimetallists in the Senate succeeded in amending the bill to the extent that the Secretary of the Treasury should be directed to purchase monthly not less than $2,000,000 and not more than $4,000,000 worth of silver bullion. The quantity purchased should be paid for at the market price of the metal; should be coined into standard silver dollars; and these should be recognized as unlimited legal tender for all debts. The measure was adopted by both Houses; was vetoed by President Hayes, and on Feb. 28, 1878, was passed over his veto by a vote of 196 to 73 in the House, and of 46 to 19 in the Senate. The act remained in force till 1890, when the obligation to purchase and coin the silver metal was repealed by what is known as the Sherman act. See Allison, William Boyd; Sherman, John.

Blatchford, Samuel, jurist; born in New York City, March 9, 1820; justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1882–95. He died in Newport, R. I., July 7, 1893.

Bledsoe, Albert Taylor, educator; born in Frankfort, Ky., Nov. 9, 1809; graduated at West Point in 1830, and served in the army about two years, when he resigned; appointed a colonel in the Confederate army in 1861, and soon made Assistant Secretary of War. In 1863 he went to England and did not return until 1866. Among his writings are *Is Davis a Traitor? Liberty and Slavery*, etc. He died in Alexandria, Va., Dec. 8, 1877.

Blenker, Louis, military officer; born in Worms, Hesse-Darmstadt, Germany, July 31, 1812; was one of the Bavarian Legion, raised to accompany King Otho to Greece. In 1848–49, he became a leader of the revolutionists, and finally fled to Switzerland. Ordered to leave that country (September, 1849), he came to the United States. At the beginning of the Civil War he raised a regiment, and, early in July, 1861, was put at the head of a brigade, chiefly of Germans. In the Army of the Potomac he commanded a division for a while, which was sent to western Virginia, and participated in the battle of Cross Keys (*q. v.*). He died in Rockland county, N. Y., Oct. 31, 1863.

Blennerhassett, Harman, scholar; born in Hampshire, England, Oct. 8, 1764 or 1765; was of Irish descent; educated at the University of Dublin; studied law and practised there; and in 1796 married Margaret Agnew, granddaughter of General Agnew, who was killed in the battle at Germantown, 1777. He was a republican in principle, although his family connections were all royalists. He sold his estates in England in 1796, and came to America with an ample fortune. He purchased an island in the Ohio River, nearly opposite Marietta, built an elegant mansion, furnished it luxuriantly, and there he and his accomplished wife were living in happiness and contentment, surrounded by books, philosophical apparatus, pictures, and other means for intellectual culture, when Aaron Burr entered that paradise, and tempted and ruined its dwellers. A mob of militiamen laid the island waste, in a degree, and Blennerhassett and his wife became fugitives in 1807. He was prosecuted as an accomplice of Burr, but was discharged. Then he became a cotton-planter near Port Gibson, Miss., but finally lost his fortune, and, in 1819, went to Montreal, and there began the practice of law. In 1822, he and his wife went to the West Indies. Thence they returned to England, where Blennerhassett died, on the island of Guernsey, Feb. 1, 1831. His widow came back to the United States to seek, from Congress, remuneration for their losses; but, while the matter was pending, she died (1842) in the city of New York, and was buried in the family plot of Thomas Addis Emmett. See Burr, Aaron.

BLENNERHASSETT'S ISLAND RESIDENCE.

Blind, Education of the. Prior to 1784 there were no institutions in the world where the blind could be educated. In that year the first school was founded in Paris, by Valentine Haüy, and soon after similar institutions were organized in England and other European countries. The first school for the blind in the United States was established in Boston in 1829, by an act of the State legislature. Since then schools of the same character have been instituted in nearly every State. The pioneer workers in this field were Howe, Chapin, Williams, Wait, Little, Lord, Huntoon, Morrison, and Anagnos. The United States government has extended large aid to promote the education of the blind. In March, 1876, Congress passed an act appropriating $250,000 for a perpetual fund, the interest of which was to be used to purchase suitable books and apparatus for distribution among the various schools for the

blind. The following is an official summary of the statistics of schools for the blind at the close of the school year 1898–99: The total number of schools reported was 36. The total number of instructors was 393 —male, 137; female, 256; in music, 127; and in the industrial departments, 122. The total number of pupils reported was 3,665—male, 1,898; female, 1,767; in kindergarten departments, 417; in vocal music, 1,738; in instrumental music, 1,797. In the industrial department the total number of pupils was 1,924. The total number of volumes in the libraries was 93,262. The value of scientific apparatus was $100,610; and the value of grounds and buildings was $6,334,307. The total expenditure for support was $1,065,437.

Bliss, Zenas Randall, military officer; born in Johnston, R. I., April 17, 1835; graduated at West Point in 1854; reached the rank of major-general in 1897; and was retired in the same year. He commanded the northern defences of Washington in 1862; took part in the battle of Fredericksburg, the siege of Vicksburg, the capture of Jackson, Miss., the Wilderness campaign, and after the war was Assistant Commissioner of Freedmen and Abandoned Lands. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 2, 1900.

Blizzard, a storm noted for its high wind, extreme cold, and hard, sharp, fine crystals of snow. It appears first east of the Rocky Mountains on the plains of Canada, and sweeps into the United States through Wyoming, North Dakota, and Minnesota, but seldom prevails east of the Great Lakes, excepting when the ground has had a long covering of snow. It is a very dangerous storm, as the fine snow fills the air and prevents any one exposed to it from seeing his way. In the blizzard that occurred in January, 1888, extending from Dakota to Texas, 235 persons perished. On March 11 – 14, 1888, a blizzard raged throughout the Eastern States that will long be remembered. New York and Philadelphia suffered the most severely of all the cities in its path. At one time the snow-laden wind blew at the rate of 46 miles an hour. Streets and railroads were blocked, telegraph-wires were blown down, and many lives were lost.

Block, or Blok, Adriaen, navigator; born in Amsterdam, Holland. In 1610 he made a successful voyage to Manhattan (now New York) Bay, taking back to Amsterdam a cargo of rich furs. In 1614 he bought a merchant ship, the *Tiger*, and again visited Manhattan. The *Tiger* was accidentally destroyed by fire, but with his crew he made a yacht, named the *Unrest*, and with this explored adjacent waters. He was the first European to sail through Hell Gate, and he discovered the rivers now known by the names of Housatonic and Connecticut. The latter he explored as far as the site of Hartford, and still pushing east discovered Block Island, which was named for him. After reaching Cape Cod he left the *Unrest*, and returned to Holland on one of the ships which had sailed with him on his westward cruise.

Block Island, Events at. In 1636, John Oldham (*q. v.*) was trading in a vessel of his own along the shores of Connecticut, and near Block Island he was attacked by Indians of that island, and he and his crew were murdered. Filled with the barbarians, who did not know how to manage rudder or sail, the vessel was found drifting by John Gallop, a Massachusetts fisherman, who had only a man and two boys with him. They gallantly attacked the Indians, killed or drove them into the sea, and recaptured the vessel—the first naval fight on the New England coast. They found the dead body of Oldham on the deck, yet bleeding. The Block Island Indians were allies of the Pequods, and were protected by the latter. The murder of Oldham was a signal for war. In August five small vessels, carrying about 100 men, under John Endicott, sailed from Boston to punish the Block Island savages. His orders from the magistrates were to kill all the men, but to spare the women and children. There were four captains in the company, because the Indians in fighting usually divided into small squads, and it was necessary to attack them in like detachments. One of these captains was the famous John Underhill. (See Pequod Indians.) Endicott's party landed in a heavy surf, and in the face of a shower of arrows, but only one Englishman was wounded. The Indians fled into the interior of the island. Everything—dwellings, crops, and the simple furniture of

the Indians—was destroyed. The island was completely desolated. Endicott could not find the Indians to kill them, but he left them in a condition to starve to death.

Blockade. In May, 1813, the British proclaimed a formal blockade of New York, the Delaware, Chesapeake Bay, Charleston, Savannah, and the mouth of the Mississippi. On June 11, the *United States, Macedonian,* and *Hornet,* under the command of Decatur, blockaded in the harbor of New York, attempted to get to sea through the East River and Long Island Sound, but off the Connecticut shore they were intercepted by a British squadron and driven into the harbor of New London. The militia were called out to protect these vessels, and the neighborhood was kept in constant alarm. The British blockading squadron, commanded by Sir Thomas Hardy, consisted of the flag-ship *Ramillies,* of the *Orpheus, Valiant, Acasta,* and smaller vessels. The commander-in-chief had won the respect of the inhabitants along the coast because of his honorable treatment of them. The blockade of New London Harbor continued twenty months, or during the remainder of the war. In the spring of 1814, all hopes of their being able to escape having faded, the *United States* and *Macedonian* were dismantled, and laid up just below Norwich, while the *Hornet,* after remaining in the Thames about a year, slipped out of the harbor and escaped to New York.

On April 25, 1814, Admiral Cochrane declared the whole coast of the United States in a state of blockade. On June 29 the President of the United States issued a proclamation declaring the blockade proclaimed by the British of the whole coast of the United States, nearly 2,000 miles in extent, to be incapable of being carried into effect by any adequate force actually stationed for the purpose. It declared that it formed no lawful prohibition or obstacle to such neutral or friendly vessels as might desire to visit and trade with the United States; and all pirates, armed vessels, or letters-of-marque and reprisal were warned not to interfere with or molest any vessels, belonging to neutral powers, bound to any port or place within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Early in June, 1814, British blockading vessels began depredations on the coast of Massachusetts, under an order issued by Admiral Cochrane to "destroy the seaport towns and devastate the country." At Wareham, on Buzzard's Bay, they destroyed vessels and other property valued at $40,000. In the same month fifty armed men in five large barges entered the Saco River, Maine, and destroyed property to the amount of about $20,000. New Bedford, and Fair Haven opposite, were threatened by British cruisers. Eastport and Castine, in Maine, were captured by the British. In July, 1814, Sir Thomas M. Hardy sailed from Halifax with a considerable land and naval force, to execute the order of Cochrane. The country from Passamaquoddy Bay to the Penobscot River speedily passed under British rule, and remained so until the close of the war. After capturing Eastport, Hardy sailed westward, and threatened Portsmouth and other places. An attack on Boston was confidently expected. It was almost defenceless, and offered a rich prize for plunder. There ships were built for the war; but when real danger appeared, the inhabitants were aroused to intense action in preparing defences. All classes of citizens might be seen with implements of labor working daily in casting up fortifications on Noddle's Island. Informed of these preparations and the enthusiasm of the people, Hardy passed by and took a position off the coast of Connecticut, where he proceeded, with reluctance, to execute Cochrane's cruel order. He bombarded STONINGTON (*q. v.*), but was repulsed. His squadron lay off the mouth of the Thames when the news of peace came. See NEW LONDON.

In the opening months of the Civil War, the Confederates planted cannon on the Virginia shores of the Potomac River, at various points, to interrupt the navigation. One of these redoubts was at Matthias Point, a bold promontory in King George county, Va., and commanded the river a short time. The point was heavily wooded. Capt. J. H. Ward, with his flag-ship *Freeborn,* of the Potomac flotilla, was below this point when he heard of the Confederates being busy in erecting a battery there. He procured from Commodore Rowan, of the *Pawnee,* then lying off Aquia Creek, two companies of ma-

rines, in charge of Lieutenant Chaplin. Ward had determined to land there, denude the point of trees, and leave no shelter for the Confederates. On the morning of June 27, 1861, Chaplin and the marines, under cover of a fire from the vessels, landed, and soon encountered the pickets of the Confederates. Captain Ward accompanied Chaplin. A body of about 400 Confederates was seen approaching, when Ward hastened back to the *Freeborn*, and the marines took to their boats. They returned, but were called off because the number of the Confederates was overwhelming. A spirited skirmish ensued between the Confederates on shore and the Nationals on their vessels. While Captain Ward was managing one of his cannon, he was mortally wounded in the abdomen by a Minié bullet from the shore. He lived only forty-five minutes. His was the only life lost on the Union side on that occasion. Captain Ward was the first naval officer killed during the war. His body was conveyed to the navy-yard at Brooklyn, where, on the *North Carolina*, it lay in state, and was then taken to Hartford, where imposing funeral ceremonies were performed in the Roman Catholic cathedral.

In September, 1861, General McClellan was ordered to co-operate with the naval force on the Potomac River in removing the blockade, but he failed to do so; and it was kept up until the Confederates voluntarily abandoned their position in front of Washington in 1862. See CHARLESTON, S. C.; MOBILE, ALA.; SAVANNAH, GA.; WILMINGTON, N. C.

On April 22, 1898, President McKinley proclaimed a blockade of all ports on the north coast of Cuba, between Cardenas and Bahia Honda (Havana being about midway between the two), and of the port of Cienfuegos, on the south coast, and kept a strong naval force there to enforce it. See BERLIN DECREE, THE; CUBA; ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

Blockade-Runners. The British government professed to be neutral when the Civil War in the United States broke out, but the Confederates were permitted to have privateer vessels built and supplied in Great Britain, while swift-sailing British merchant steam-vessels, built for the purpose, were permitted to carry on an extensive trade with the Confederates by running the blockade of Southern ports. These vessels carried arms, ammunition, and other supplies to the Confederates, and received in exchange cotton and tobacco. Enormous profits were made for the owners of these vessels when a successful voyage was accomplished; but so many of them were captured by the blockading fleets, destroyed, or wrecked, that it is believed their losses were greater in amount than their gains. The number of blockade-runners captured or destroyed during the war by the National navy was 1,504. The gross proceeds of the property captured and condemned as lawful prize, before Nov. 1 following the close of the war, amounted to nearly $22,000,000. This sum was subsequently increased by new decisions. The value of the vessels captured and destroyed (1,149 captured and 355 destroyed) was not less than $7,000,000, making a total loss, chiefly to British owners, of at least $30,000,000. Besides, in consequence of the remissness in duty of the British government in permitting piratical vessels to be built and furnished in the realm for the Confederates, that government was compelled to pay, in the form of damages to American property on the seas, $15,500,000 in gold. See ARBITRATION, TRIBUNAL OF.

A CONFEDERATE BLOCKADE-RUNNER.

Blocks of Five, a political phrase which originated in the United States in the Presidential campaign of 1888. It was alleged that the treasurer of the Republican National Committee had written a letter to the chairman of the Indiana State Committee, with the recommendation that he secure "floaters in blocks of five." This was interpreted to mean the bribing of voters at wholesale rates. The managers of the Democratic party widely circulated the letter before the election. A suit for libel was afterwards instituted, but was never pressed.

Blodget, LORIN, physicist; born in Jamestown, N. Y., May 25, 1823; was educated at Hobart College; appointed assistant in the Smithsonian Institution in charge of researches on climatology, in 1851; and published *The Climatology of the United States,* in 1857, the most valuable contribution on that subject ever issued in this country. He was United States appraiser-at-large in 1865–77. His *Commercial and Financial Resources of the United States,* issued during the Civil War, was of great service to the government in sustaining the credit of the United States in Europe. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 24, 1901.

Blodgett, HENRY WILLIAMS, jurist; born in Amherst, Mass., July 21, 1821; educated at Amherst Academy; admitted to the bar in 1844. He was a member of the Illinois legislature in 1852–54; a State Senator in 1859–65, and United States district judge in 1869–93. In 1892 he was appointed one of the United States counsel to the Bering Sea arbitration tribunal. He retired from the bench in 1893.

Blood Indians. See BLACKFEET.

Bloody Angle. See GETTYSBURG.

Bloody Bill. Passed by Congress, March 2, 1833, to enforce the tariff of 1832, which South Carolina had declared null and void.

Bloody Bridge. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

Bloody Marsh, BATTLE OF. See GEORGIA.

Bloody Shirt. A term used after the Civil War to describe attempts to arouse Northern passions against the South.

Bloomer, AMELIA JENKS, reformer; born in Homer, N. Y., May 27, 1818; married Dexter C. Bloomer, of Seneca Falls, N. Y., in 1840; and began the publication of *The Lily,* devoted to woman's rights, prohibition, etc., in 1849. Mr. and Mrs. Bloomer moved to Council Bluffs, Ia., in 1855, and she then lectured in the principal cities of the country. She recommended and wore a sanitary dress for women which became known as the Bloomer costume, although it was originated by Mrs. Elizabeth Smith Miller. It consisted of skirts reaching just below the knee and Turkish trousers. She died in Council Bluffs, Ia., Dec. 30, 1894.

Bloomfield, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Woodbridge, N. J.; was a law student when the war for independence broke out, when he was made a captain, and entered the service of the patriots, serving until the end of the war. Then he had attained the rank of major. After the war he was attorney-general of New Jersey; governor in 1801–12; brigadier-general during the War of 1812–15; member of Congress 1817–21; and was always esteemed a sound legislator and a judicious leader. He died in Burlington, N. J., Oct. 3, 1823.

Blooming Gap, SKIRMISH AT. Gen. F. W. Lander was sent, early in January, 1862, to protect the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. He had a wily and energetic opponent in "Stonewall" Jackson, who was endeavoring to gain what the Confederates had lost in western Virginia, and to hold possession of the Shenandoah Valley. With about 4,000 men Lander struck Jackson at Blooming Gap (Feb. 14), captured seventeen of his commissioned officers, nearly sixty of his rank and file, and compelled him to retire.

Blount, JAMES H., legislator; born in Macon, Ga., Sept. 12, 1837. He was elected to Congress as a Democrat in 1872, and held his seat till 1893, when he declined a renomination. At the conclusion of his last term the House suspended its proceedings that his associates might formally testify their appreciation of his worth. In his last term he was chairman of the committee on foreign affairs, a post that gave him a wide knowledge of American relations with other countries. In March, 1893, President Cleveland appointed him a special commissioner to visit Honolulu and report on the conditions which led to the overthrow of the king-

dom of Hawaii and the establishment of an American protectorate over the islands. The first result of his investigations was an order to remove the American flag from the government house, and for the withdrawal of American marines from Honolulu. These actions led to the resignation of Minister Stevens, the appointment of Mr. Blount to succeed him, and to a renewed agitation for the annexation of Hawaii, both in Washington and in Honolulu. When his mission was accomplished, Minister Blount returned to his home and resumed the practice of law. He died in Macon, Ga., March 8, 1903. See HAWAII.

Blount, WILLIAM, statesman; born in North Carolina, in 1744; was a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1782–83, 1786, and 1787; and was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution. In 1790 he was appointed governor of the territory south of the Ohio. (See NORTHWESTERN TERRITORY.) He was president of the convention that formed the State of Tennessee in 1796, and was chosen the first United States Senator from the new State. Blount was impeached in 1797 by the House of Representatives, charged with having intrigued, while territorial governor, to transfer New Orleans and neighboring districts (then belonging to Spain) to Great Britain by means of a joint expedition of Englishmen and Creek and Cherokee Indians. He was expelled from the Senate, and the process was discontinued in the House. His popularity in Tennessee was increased by these proceedings, and he became, by the voice of the people, a State Senator and president of that body. He died in Knoxville, Tenn., March 21, 1800.

Blue, VICTOR, naval officer; born in Marion, S. C., Dec. 6, 1865; entered the United States Naval Academy, Sept. 6, 1883; was an assistant engineer in 1889–92; then promoted to ensign; served on the *Alliance* and *Thetis;* and was assigned to duty at the Naval Academy, Sept. 28, 1896. When the war with Spain broke out he was promoted to lieutenant, and ordered to the gunboat *Suwanee.* On June 11, 1898, he was landed at Acerraderos, Cuba, made his way to the top of a hill overlooking Santiago Harbor, and definitely located Admiral Cervera's Spanish fleet in the harbor. This journey was one of 72 miles in extent, and was wholly within the enemy's lines. For this successful achievement he was commended by Rear-Admiral Sampson and the Secretary of the Navy.

Blue-Books, the popular designation of a collection of reports and other papers printed by order of the British Parliament from time to time. In the United States the blue-book, issued by the government, contains lists of all persons in the employment of the government in the civil, legal, military, and naval departments. These books are so called because of the color of their cover.

Blue Hen, a cant or popular name for the State of Delaware. Captain Caldwell, of the 1st Delaware Regiment in the Revolution, was a brave and very popular officer, and noted for his fondness for cock-fighting. When officers were sent to his State to get recruits for the regiment, it was a common remark that they had gone for more of Captain Caldwell's game-cocks. The captain insisted that no cock could be truly game unless the mother was a blue hen; and the expression "Blue Hen's Chickens" was substituted for game-cocks, and finally applied to the whole Delaware line.

Blue Laws, the name given to the first collection of laws framed for the government of the Connecticut colony. They were published, in collected form, in 1650, and issued in blue-paper covers. From this fact they derived the name of blue laws. They contained rigid enactments against every social vice, as well as for social regulations, and revealed the sternness of the Puritan character and morals. Copies of these laws found their way to England, where they first received the name of "blue laws." After the restoration of Charles II. the word *blue* was applied to rigid moralists of every kind, especially to the Presbyterians. Butler, in *Hudibras,* says:

> "For his religion it was writ,
> To match his learning and his wit,
> 'Twas Presbyterian true *blue.*"

To ridicule the Puritans of New England, a series of ridiculous enactments, falsely purporting to be a selection from the blue laws, were promulgated, and gained general belief.

Blue Lick. See Big Blue Lick.

Blue Lights. In December, 1813, the *Macedonian* and *Hornet* were blockaded in New London Harbor. Decatur was anxious to run the blockade, and might have accomplished it but for the mischievous, if not treasonable, conduct of a section of the ultra-Federalists known as the Peace Party (*q. v.*). He had fixed on Sunday evening, Dec. 12, for making an attempt to run the blockade. The night was very dark, the wind was favorable, and the tide served at a convenient hour. When all things were in readiness and he was about to weigh anchor, word came from the "row-guard" of the blockaded vessels that signal-lights were burning on both sides of the river, near its mouth. The lights were *blue*, and placed in position by treasonable men to warn the British blockaders of Decatur's final movements. There were Peace-men in almost every place in New England, who did all they could to embarrass their government in its prosecution of the war. So betrayed, Decatur gave up the design, and tried every means to discover the betrayers, but without success. The Federalists denied the fact, but the blue signal-lights had been seen by too many to make the denial of any effect. In a letter to the Secretary of the Navy, Decatur wrote: "Notwithstanding these signals have been repeated, and have been seen by at least twenty persons in this squadron, there are many in New London who have the hardihood to affect to disbelieve it and the effrontery to deny it." The whole Federal party, traditionally opposed to the war, were often compelled to bear the odium of the bad conduct of the Peace faction. They had to do so in this case and for more than a generation; and long after that organization was dissolved members of that party were stigmatized with the epithet of "Blue Light Federalists."

Blue Ridge Mountains, a portion of the Appalachian range.

Blue Springs, Battle at. While Burnside's forces in east Tennessee were concentrating at Knoxville (*q. v.*), they had many encounters with the Confederates. One of these occurred at Blue Springs, not far from Bull's Gap. There the Confederates had gathered in considerable force. A brigade of National cavalry, supported by a small force of infantry, was then at Bull's Gap. The cavalry pressed forward to Blue Springs, where the Confederates were commanded by Gen. S. Jones. After a desultory fight for about twenty-four hours (Oct. 10 and 11, 1863) the Confederates broke and fled, leaving their dead on the field. They were pursued and struck from time to time by General Shackleford and his cavalry, and driven out of the State. The pursuers penetrated Virginia 10 miles beyond Bristol. In the battle of Blue Springs the Nationals lost about 100 men in killed and wounded. The Confederate loss was a little greater.

Board of Ordnance and Fortification, a body of officers under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of War and associated with the ordnance department, charged with the execution of duties indicated in the title.

Board of Strategy, in the United States, a body of expert officers in the army and navy who, in co-operation with the bureaus of information of those branches of the public service, planned the operations on land and sea during the American-Spanish War of 1898. These boards were especially appointed as advisors of the President, and the duties they performed were similar to those devolving upon what is known as the general staff in Europe. With large, detailed maps covering every inch of land or water likely to be involved in any way in the war, the boards first located with markers the initial positions of armies, squadrons, and minor forces, both American and Spanish, and the moment the slightest change in any of these locations was made the change was indicated by the shifting of the markers. Hence the boards could determine at any time the positive or approximate location of any force. If the change by the enemy was one of vital moment, warnings or fresh instructions were sent to the commanding officer directly concerned. The strategy board could thus see at a glance the condition of the entire field of operations; while the local admiral or general was restricted to his immediate environment. A close touch between the boards and a distant army or fleet enabled the latter to operate more intelligently and to grasp

quickly the meaning of sudden changes in instructions.

Board of War and Ordnance, a committee appointed by Congress, June 12, 1776, consisting of John Adams, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Harrison, James Wilson, and Edward Rutledge, with Richard Peters as secretary. This board continued, with changes, until October, 1781, when Benjamin Lincoln was appointed Secretary of War.

Board on Geographic Names, a board organized by the United States government in 1890 for the purpose of securing uniform usage in regard to geographic nomenclature and orthography throughout the executive departments of the government and particularly on maps and charts issued by the various departments and bureaus. To it are referred all unsettled or disputed questions concerning the spelling of geographic names which arise in the different departments, and the decisions of the board are accepted by the departments as the standard authority in such matters. The decisions of the board cover the spelling of foreign place-names as well as those in the United States. In the present work the forms adopted by this board have been followed.

Bobadilla, Francisco, a Spanish magistrate; was sent to Santo Domingo by Queen Isabella in 1500 to ascertain the condition of the Spanish colony there, so many complaints of the administration of Columbus having reached her. Coveting the place of Columbus, Bobadilla made many unjust charges against him. He arrested the illustrious man and sent him to Spain in chains. But the sovereigns, satisfied that he was innocent, reinstated Columbus, recalled Bobadilla, and sent Ovando (*q. v.*) to take his place. On his return homeward, Bobadilla was lost at sea in a furious tempest with many others of the enemies of Columbus, together with the immense wealth which they were carrying away with them, in June, 1502.

Boehler, Peter, clergyman; born in Frankfort, Germany, Dec. 31, 1712; was graduated at Jena in 1736; ordained a Moravian minister in 1737; and was sent as an evangelist to Carolina and Georgia in 1738. On his way he became acquainted with John and Charles Wesley, upon whom he exercised great influence. Indeed, John Wesley records in his diary that Boehler was the person through whom he was brought to believe in Christ. The Moravian colony in Georgia was broken up and removed to Pennsylvania in 1740. He was consecrated bishop in 1748 and superintended the Moravian churches in America in 1753–64, when he was recalled to Germany. He died in London, England, April 27, 1775.

Boer, a Dutch term meaning "farmer," given to the descendants of the Holland emigrants to the Cape of Good Hope in 1652. They gradually extended civilization over a wide territory. The British acquired the settlement in 1796 as a fruit of war. In 1803 it was restored to the Dutch, but in 1806 was again seized by the British. In the Congress of Vienna (1814) Holland formally ceded it to Great Britain. This settlement became known as Cape Colony. A large majority of the Boers moved north in 1835–36, a number settling in the region which afterwards became known as the Orange Free State, and the remainder in the present colony of Natal. The settlers in the latter region stayed there until Great Britain took possession of it in 1843, when they removed farther north, and organized the South African, or, as it has been generally called, the Transvaal, Republic. In 1877 the South African Republic was annexed by the British government; in 1880 the Boers there rose in revolt; in 1881 a peace was signed giving the Boers limited self-government; and in 1884 another convention recognized the independence of the republic, subject to a British suzerainty restricted to the control of foreign affairs. The war of 1899–1901 between the South African Republic and the Orange Free State on the one hand, and Great Britain on the other, resulted from the refusal of the Boers to accede to a number of British claims which the Boers held to be without justification. In this war the Boer military leaders, Joubert, Cronje, Botha, and De Wet displayed a skill in manœuvring that won the admiration even of their opponents. The death of Joubert and the surrender of Cronje were the severest shocks to the Boer cause up to the close of 1900. During the summer of 1900, General Lord Roberts, British commander-in-chief in South Africa, formally declared

the annexation of the two republics, giving them the names of the Vaal River and Orange River colonies. About the same time a joint commission was appointed by the presidents of the two republics to visit the countries of Europe and also the United States for the purpose of securing intervention. In the United States they were received by President McKinley, wholly in the capacity of private visitors; were given a hearty welcome in several large cities; and had a subscription started to aid their cause.

Bogardus, EVERARDUS, one of the first clergymen in New Netherland; born in Holland. He and Adam Roelandson, school-master, came to America with Governor Van Twiller in 1633. Bogardus was a bold, outspoken man, and did not shrink from giving "a piece of his mind" to men in authority. Provoked by what he considered maladministration of public affairs, he wrote a letter to Governor Van Twiller, in which he called him "a child of the devil," and threatened to give him "such a shake from the pulpit" the next Sunday as would "make him shudder." About 1638 Bogardus married Annetje, widow of Roeloff Jansen, to whose husband Van Twiller had granted 62 acres of land on Manhattan Island, now in possession of Trinity Church, New York. This is the estate which the "heirs of Annetje Jansen Bogardus" have been seeking for many years to recover. Being charged before the Classis of Amsterdam with conduct unbecoming a clergyman, Bogardus was about to go thither to defend himself on the arrival of Kieft, but the governor and council determined to retain him for the "good of souls." A daughter of Mr. Bogardus by his first wife was married in 1642; and it was on that occasion that Governor Kieft procured generous subscriptions for building a new church. At the wedding feast, "after the fourth or fifth round of drinking," he made a liberal subscription himself to the church fund, and requested the other guests to do the same. All the company, with "light heads and glad hearts," vied with each other in "subscribing richly"; and some of them, after they returned home, "well repented it," but were not excused. John and Richard Ogden, of Stamford, Conn., were employed to build the church, in which Bogardus officiated about four years. When Kieft, in 1643, was about to make war on the Indians, Bogardus, who had been invited to the council, warned him in warm words against his rashness.

Two years later he shared with the people in disgust of the governor; and he boldly denounced him, as he had Van Twiller, from the pulpit, charging him with drunkenness and rapacity, and said, "What are the great men of the country but vessels of wrath and fountains of woe and trouble? They think of nothing but to plunder the property of others, to dismiss, to banish, to transport to Holland." Kieft and some of the provincial officers absented themselves from church to avoid further clerical lashings. Kieft encouraged unruly fellows to keep up a noise around the church during the preaching. On one occasion a drum was beaten, a cannon was fired several times during the service, and the communicants were insulted. The plucky dominie denounced the authorities more fiercely than ever, and the governor brought the contumacious clergyman to trial. The excitement ran high, but mutual friends finally brought about a cessation of hostilities, if not peace. There were then two other clergymen in the province—Samuel Megapolensis and Francis Doughty—the latter preaching to the English residents there. The conduct of Bogardus had become a subject of remark in the Classis of Amsterdam, and after the arrival of Stuyvesant (1647) he resigned, and sailed for Holland in the same vessel with Kieft. He, too, was drowned when the vessel was wrecked in Bristol Channel, Sept. 27, 1647.

Bogardus, JAMES, inventor; born in Catskill, N. Y., March 14, 1800; was apprenticed to a watch-maker in 1814, and became skilled as a die-sinker and engraver. His genius as an inventor was first seen when he made an eight-day, three-wheeled chronometer clock, which was awarded the highest premium at the first fair of the American Institute. In 1828 he produced the "ring flier" for cotton spinning; in 1831 devised an engraving machine. He also made the transfer machine for the production of banknote plates from separate dies. In 1832 he devised the first dry gas-meter, and in

1836 made it applicable to all current fluids by giving a rotary motion to the machinery. In 1839 the British government offered a prize to any one who should submit the best plan of manufacturing postage-stamps, and from 2,600 designs that of Mr. Bogardus was selected. In 1847 he built a five-story factory in New York City entirely of cast-iron, which was the first of its kind in the United States, and probably in the world. This undertaking was so successful that it led him to engage in the business of building iron warehouses throughout the United States. He died in New York City, April 13, 1874.

Boggs, CHARLES STEWART, naval officer; born in New Brunswick, N. J., Jan. 28, 1811; entered the navy in 1826; served on stations in the Mediterranean, West Indies, the coast of Africa, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean. He was made lieutenant in 1837; promoted to commander in 1855; and in 1858 was appointed light-house inspector on the Pacific coast. Placed in command of the gunboat *Varuna,* when the Civil War broke out, he was with Admiral Farragut in the desperate fight on the Mississippi, near Forts Jackson and St. Philip. In that contest his conduct was admirable for bravery and fortitude. He was subsequently in command of various vessels on American and European stations, and was promoted to rear-admiral in July, 1870. He died in New Brunswick, April 22, 1888.

CAPTAIN CHARLES STEWART BOGGS.

Bogus Presidential Proclamation. See HOWARD, JOSEPH.

Bohol, an island in the Philippine Archipelago belonging to what is known as the Visayas, or Bisayas, group; between the larger islands of Luzon and Mindanao; east of Zebu, and a short distance southwest of Leyte; area about 1,300 square miles; estimated population, 245,000. The island is believed to be rich in several minerals, especially gold, and the principal industry has been the growing of sugar-cane. The island has several important towns and ports which were declared open to commerce by the American authorities, Dec. 11, 1899.

Boker, GEORGE HENRY, poet and dramatist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 6, 1823; was graduated at Princeton College in 1842; studied law, but did not engage in practice. After a tour in Europe he applied himself to literary work. In 1871 President Grant appointed him United States minister to Turkey, and in 1875 he was transferred to Russia. He returned home in 1879. His poetical works include *The Lesson of Life; Plays and Poems; Poems of the War; Street Lyrics;* and *The Book of the Dead;* and chief among his dramatic works are *Calaynos; Anne Boleyn; Francesca da Rimini; The Widow's Marriage;* and *The Betrothal.* He died in Philadelphia, Jan. 2, 1890.

Bollan, WILLIAM, lawyer; born in England; came to America about 1740, and settled in Boston. He married a daughter of Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, and was appointed collector of customs at Salem and Marblehead. In 1745 he was sent to England to solicit the reimbursement of more than $800,000 advanced by Massachusetts for the expedition against Cape Breton. He was successful; and became agent for Massachusetts in 1762, but was dismissed. Being in England in 1769, he obtained copies of thirty-three letters written by Governor Bernard and General Gage, calumniating the colonists, and sent them to Boston. For this act he was denounced in Parliament. He strongly recommended the British government to pursue conciliatory measures towards the colonists in 1775; and in various ways, in person and in writing, he showed his warm friendship for the Americans. Mr. Bollan wrote several political pam-

phlets relating to American affairs; and in 1774 he presented, as colonial agent, a petition to the King in council. He died in 1776.

Bomford, GEORGE, military officer; born in New York, in 1780; graduated at West Point in 1805; introduced bomb cannon after a pattern of his own, which were called columbiads. These cannon were afterwards developed by JOHN A. DAHLGREN (*q. v.*). He became chief of ordnance May 30, 1832, and from Feb. 1, 1842, till his death was inspector of arsenals, ordnance, arms and munitions of war. He died in Boston, Mass., March 25, 1848.

Bomford, JAMES V., military officer; born on Governor's Island, N. Y., Oct. 5, 1811; son of George Bomford; was graduated at West Point in 1832; brevetted major for gallantry at Contreras and lieutenant-colonel for meritorious conduct at the battle of Molino del Rey. While on frontier duty in Texas, at the beginning of the Civil War, he was made a prisoner and was not exchanged until 1862, when he was promoted lieutenant-colonel. He was brevetted colonel for gallantry at Perryville, and was retired in 1872. He died in Elizabeth, N. J., Jan. 6, 1892.

Bonaparte. See NAPOLEON.

Bon Homme Richard. See JONES, PAUL.

Boniface, FRANCIS. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Bonneville, BENJAMIN L. E., explorer; born in France about 1795; was graduated at West Point in 1815; engaged in explorations in the Rocky Mountains in 1831–36. Washington Irving edited his journal entitled *Adventures of Captain Bonneville, U. S. A., in the Rocky Mountains and the Far West.* He served throughout the Mexican War, and was wounded at the battle of Churubusco. In 1865 he was brevetted brigadier-general for long and faithful service. He died at Fort Smith, Ark., June 12, 1878.

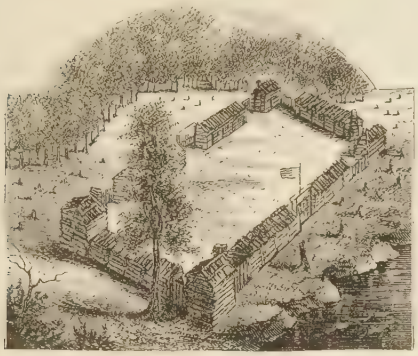
Book of Mormon. See MORMONS.

Boone, DANIEL, explorer; born in Bucks county, Pa., Feb. 11, 1735. From his youth he was a famous hunter, and, while yet a minor, he emigrated, with his father, to North Carolina, where he married. In May, 1759, Boone and five others went to explore the forests of Kentucky. There he was captured by some Indians, but escaped, and returned home in 1771. In 1773 he led a party of settlers to the wilds he had explored; and in 1774 conducted a party of surveyors to the

DANIEL BOONE.

Falls of the Ohio (now Louisville). He had taken his family with the other families to Kentucky in 1773, where they were in perpetual danger from the barbarians of the forest. He had several fights with the Indians; and in 1775 he built a fort on the Kentucky River on the present site of Boonesboro. In 1777 several attacks were made on this fort by the Indians. They were repulsed, but in February, 1778, Boone was captured by them, and taken to Chillicothe, beyond the Ohio, and thence to Detroit. Adopted as a son in an Indian family, he became a favorite, but managed to escape in June following, and returned to his fort and kindred. In August, about 450 Indians attacked his fort, which he bravely defended with about fifty men. At different times two of his sons were killed by the Indians. Boone accompanied General Clarke on his expedition against the Indians on the Scioto, in Ohio, in 1782, soon after a battle at the Blue Licks. Having lost his lands in Kentucky in consequence of a defective title, he went to the Missouri country in 1795, and settled on the Osage Woman River, where he continued the occupations of hunter and trapper. Again he was deprived of a large tract of land in Missouri, obtained

under the Spanish authority, by the title being declared invalid. He died in Cha-



BOONE'S FORT.

rette, Mo., Sept. 26, 1820. Boone's remains, with those of his wife, rest in the cemetery near Frankfort, Ky.

Boone, THOMAS, colonial governor; appointed governor of New Jersey in 1760, and of South Carolina in 1762. He quarrelled with the legislature of South Carolina, which refused to hold any intercourse with him, and in 1763 was succeeded as governor by William Bull.

Booneville, BATTLE OF. Governor Jackson, of Missouri, a Confederate sympathizer, had abandoned Jefferson City, which was immediately occupied by General Lyon. Before the Confederate forces could concentrate about Booneville, 50 miles above Jefferson City, Lyon moved upon Booneville, and, with 2,000 men, defeated Marmaduke, who offered little resistance, in twenty minutes, on June 17, 1861. This compelled the Confederate detachments to move to the southern border of the State.

Booth, BALLINGTON, reformer; born in Brighouse, England, July 28, 1859; son of Gen. William Booth, the founder of the SALVATION ARMY (*q. v.*). In 1885–87 he was the commander of the Salvation Army in Australia, and from 1887 till 1896 in the United States, when he withdrew and founded the VOLUNTEERS OF AMERICA (*q. v.*). In August, 1896, he was ordained a minister in Chicago. He has had in his wife Maud, who is a strong, popular lecturer, an able supporter.

Booth, JOHN WILKES, assassin; born in Harford county, Md., in 1839; son of Junius Brutus Booth, and brother of Edwin T. Booth; made his appearance as an actor in early manhood. When the Civil War broke out he took sides with the South. Brooding over the "lost cause" of the Confederacy he formed a conspiracy with Powell, Surratt, and others, to assassinate President Lincoln. On the evening of April 14, 1865, the President, Mrs. Lincoln, and a party of friends went to Ford's Theatre, in Washington, to witness a performance of *Our American Cousin.* While the play was in progress Booth entered the President's box, and shot the President in the back of the head. Then, shouting "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" the assassin leaped upon the stage and made his escape on a horse in waiting. He was pursued and overtaken, concealed in a barn near Bowling Green, Va., and, re-

JOHN WILKES BOOTH.
(Redrawn from a sketch.)

fusing to surrender, was shot dead, April 26, 1865. See LINCOLN, ABRAHAM.

Booth, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Nottingham, England, April 10, 1829; was educated in Nottingham, and in 1850–61 served as a minister of the Methodist New Connection. In 1865 he organized the Christian Mission to reach the lower classes in the East End of London. In 1878 when this mission had grown to be a large organization, he changed it into a religious military body, and it became known as the Salvation Army, with him-

self as leader or "general." His entire family were mustered into the service of the "army," his son, Ballington, being especially set apart for the work in the United States. In 1896, when a division occurred in the American branch of the army, and Ballington was engaged in organizing the VOLUNTEERS OF AMERICA (*q. v.*), General Booth made unavailing efforts to prevent a disruption. His chief publication is *In Darkest England.*

Border Ruffians, an epithet applied to pro-slavery men in Missouri charged with harassing anti-slavery men in Kansas.

Border States, a phrase applied to Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri, during the Civil War, because they were located on the border line between the free and the slave States. At the suggestion of Virginia, a Border State Convention was held at Frankfort, Ky., on March 27, 1861. The Unionists in Kentucky had elected nine of their representatives and the Confederates one. The convention was a failure. No delegates from Virginia appeared, and only five besides those from Kentucky. The venerable John J. Crittenden presided. Four of the five outside of Kentucky were from Missouri, and one from Tennessee. The "wrongs of the South" and the "sectionalism of the North" were spoken of as the principal cause of the trouble at hand. It condemned rebellion, but did not ask the loyal people to put it down. Its chief panacea for existing evils was, in substance, the CRITTENDEN COMPROMISE (*q. v.*); and the convention regarded the national protection and fostering of the slave system as "essential to the best hopes of our country."

Borgne, LAKE, BATTLE ON. The revelations made by JEAN LAFITTE (*q. v.*) caused everybody to be vigilant at New Orleans. Early in December, 1812, Com. D. T. Patterson, in command of the naval station there, was warned, by a letter from Pensacola, of a powerful British land and naval armament in the Gulf. He immediately sent Lieut. Thomas Ap Catesby Jones with five gunboats, a tender, and a despatch-boat, to watch for the enemy. Jones sent Lieutenant McKeever with two gunboats to the entrance of Mobile Bay for intelligence. McKeever discovered the British fleet on Dec. 10, and hastened back with the news. In the afternoon of the same day the fleet appeared near the entrance to Lake Borgne, and Jones hastened with his flotilla towards Pass Christian, where he anchored, and waited the approach of the invaders to dispute their passage into the lake. He was discovered by the astonished Britons on the 13th, when Admiral Cochrane, in command of the fleet, gave orders for a change in the plan of operations against New Orleans. It would not do to attempt to land troops while the waters of the lake were patrolled by American gunboats. A flotilla of about sixty barges was prepared, the most of them carrying a carronade in the bow, and an ample number of armed volunteers from the fleet were sent, under the command to Captain Lockyer, to capture or destroy the American vessels. Perceiving his danger, Jones, in obedience to orders, proceeded with his flotilla towards the Rigolets, between Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain. Calm and currents prevented his passing a channel, and he anchored at two in the morning of the 14th. Jones's flag-ship was a little schooner of 80 tons. The total number of men in his squadron was 182, and of guns twenty-three. At daylight the British barges, containing 1,200 men, bore down upon Jones's little squadron. They had six oars on each side, and formed in a long, straight line. Jones reserved his fire until the invaders were within close rifle range. Then McKeever hurled a 32-pound ball over the water and a shower of grape-shot, which broke the British line and made great confusion. But the invaders pushed forward, and at half-past eleven o'clock the engagement became general and desperate. At one time Jones's schooner was attacked by fifteen barges. The British captured the tender *Alligator* early in the contest; and finally, by the force of overwhelming numbers, they gained a victory, which gave them undisputed command of Lake Borgne. The triumph cost them about 300 men killed and wounded. The Americans lost six men killed and thirty-five wounded. Among the latter were Lieutenants Jones, McKeever, Parker, and Speddon. The British commander, Lockyer, was severely wounded; so, also, was Lieutenant Pratt, the officer who, under the direction of Admiral Cockburn,

set fire to the public buildings in Washington, D. C. Several of the British barges were shattered and sunk. The lighter transports, filled with troops, immediately entered Lake Borgne. Ship after ship got aground, until at length the troops were all placed in small boats and conveyed about 30 miles to Pea Island, at the mouth of the Pearl River, where General Keane organized his forces for future action.

Borough, or **Burgh,** originally a company of ten families living together, afterwards a town, incorporated or not, in Great Britain, which sent a representative to Parliament. Also a castle, a walled town, or other fortified place. In the United States the word is generally applied to an incorporated town or village, especially in Pennsylvania. The city of Greater New York, which went into existence on Jan. 1, 1898, is comprised of five boroughs. Both borough and burgh are also used as terminations of place-names, and, in the United States, under the ruling of the Board on Geographic Names (*q. v.*), the forms are now *boro* and *burg*. The difference between *burgh* and *berg* in terminology is that the former means that the place is a borough as above described, and the latter a place on or near a mountain. An exception to the rule is found in the case of Edinburgh, Scotland, in which the "h" is retained, and in Pittsburgh, Pa., where the people insist on retaining the "h."

Boscawen, Edward, naval officer; born in Cornwall, England, Aug. 19, 1711; son of Viscount Falmouth; was made a captain in the royal navy in March, 1737. Distinguished at Porto Bello and Carthagena, he was promoted to the command of a 60-gun ship in 1744, in which he took the *Media*. He signalized himself under Anson in the battle off Cape Finisterre in 1747, and against the French in the East Indies as rear-admiral the next year. He made himself master of Madras, and returned to England in 1751. Admiral of the Blue, he commanded an expedition against Louisburg, Cape Breton, in 1758, with General Amherst. In 1759 he defeated the French fleet in the Mediterranean, capturing 2,000 prisoners. For these services he was made general of the marines and member of the privy council. Parliament also granted him a pension of $15,000 a year. He died Jan. 10, 1761.

Bosomworth, Thomas, clergyman; came to America in 1736 with General Oglethorpe's regiment of Highlanders; married a Creek woman, who gradually came to be recognized as the queen of the Creek Indians. The crown granted Bosomworth a tract of land, and Governor Oglethorpe gave his wife a yearly allowance of $500. Her pretensions gradually increased, until she claimed equality with the sovereign of Great Britain. This not being conceded to her, she induced the Creek nation to revolt, and for a short time Savannah was in imminent danger. Both Bosomworth and his wife were imprisoned for a short time, but released upon giving peaceful assurances.

Bossism. See Curtis, George William, *The Spoils System.*

BOSTON

Boston, city, port of entry, capital of the State of Massachusetts, county-seat of Suffolk county, commercial metropolis of New England, and fifth city in population in the United States according to the Federal census of 1900; jocularly known as "the Hub of the Universe"; population, 1900, 560,892; 1905 (estimated), 621,450. It is situated at the west end of Massachusetts Bay; is the terminus of the Boston & Albany, the Boston & Maine, the Fitchburg, the New England, and the Old Colony system of the New York, New Haven, & Hartford railroads; and has steamship connection with all important foreign and domestic ports.

Old Boston.—The original portion of the city, a peninsula extending towards the northeast at the western extremity of the harbor, and bounded on the west by the estuary of the Charles River, had an area of 780 acres, and was named Shawmut by the Indians, and Trimontaine and Tremont by the early white settlers because of the three hills within its limits, subsequently known as Beacon, Copp, and Fort.

In 1630 the Court of Assistants ordered that "Trimontaine shall be called Boston," and under this name the town was incorporated in 1822 and given a city charter in 1854. Roxbury, also named by the Court of Assistants in 1630, was incorporated as a city in 1846, and annexed to Boston in 1868; Dorchester, named by the same authority and in the same year as Boston and Roxbury, was annexed in 1870; and Charlestown, settled in 1629 and incorporated as a city in 1847; Brighton, incorporated as a town in 1807; and West Roxbury, incorporated as a town in 1851—were severally annexed in 1874.

New Boston.—The city has now an area of about forty-three square miles; is constituted of the districts of East Boston, South Boston, Charlestown, West Roxbury, Roslindale, Jamaica Plain, Mattapan, Allston, Somer Mills, Neponset, Roxbury, Dorchester, and Brighton; and for administrative purposes is divided into twenty-five wards. East Boston occupies Noddle or Manerick Island; South Boston is the former Dorchester Neck, extending about two miles along the harbor, an arm of which separates it from Boston proper. The deepest water of the harbor is at East Boston, and here are located the ocean-steamship wharves; South Boston has the large docks and warehouses of the New York, New Haven, & Hartford Railroad; Boston proper is connected by handsome bridges with Charlestown, Cambridge, East Cambridge, and Old Cambridge. It is said that with the exception of three cemeteries and a half-dozen buildings not a vestige remains of the Boston of a century ago.

Boston Harbor.—The harbor is an indentation of Massachusetts Bay, embracing an area of about seventy-five square miles, including several arms, and containing more than fifty islands. The most prominent islands, with their present uses, are as follows: Governor's, owned by the United States, contains Fort Winthrop; Castle, United States, Fort Independence, now under jurisdiction of the Park Commissioners; Lovell's, United States, Fort Standish and buoy station; George's, United States, Fort Warren; Rainsford, city of Boston, House of Reformation; Gallop's, Boston, quarantine station; Long, Boston and United States, Fort Strong, lighthouse, Boston almshouse, and hospital; Deer, Boston, House of Correction; Thompson's, Boston, Farm School for Indigent Boys; Little Brewster, United States, lighthouse; and Moon, Boston, point of discharge of main drainage system.

Government.—The chief executive authority of the city is vested in a mayor, elected for two years, who receives an annual salary of $10,000. The legislative body consists of a Board of Aldermen of thirteen members, each of whom receives $1,500 per annum, and a Common Council of three members from each ward, who receive annually $300 each. The various executive departments are under the supervision of forty-three joint standing committees of the Aldermanic Board and Council, thirty-four of which consist of five aldermen and eight councilmen each, and the others of aldermen, councilmen, and various municipal officials, according to the character of the respective duties. The heads of the several executive departments are partly appointed and partly elected. The judicial authority of the city proper is now vested in the Municipal Court of Boston. A Police Court for the city and a Justices' Court for Suffolk county (with civil jurisdiction only) were established in 1822; the duties of the justices of the Justices' Court were discharged by the justices of the Police Court till 1860, when the jurisdiction of the former was transferred to the latter; and the Police Court was succeeded by the Municipal Court in 1866.

Public Interests.—The city has 500 miles of streets, of which 117 miles are paved, that cost annually for cleaning $403,620; 620 miles of sewers; a water-plant, of which the distributing system is owned by the city, that has 732 miles of mains, a daily capacity of 173,000,000 gallons and a daily consumption of 75,000,000 gallons, and that cost $16,025,824; a street-lighting plant, owned by a private corporation, that costs the city annually about $760,000; a police force of 1,249 men that costs annually about $1,815,000; and a fire department of 816 men that costs about $1,309,550. In 1904 the assessed property valuations were: Real estate, $1,006,122,900; personal, $230,915,951;—total, $1,237,038,851; tax rate,

THE BOSTON MASSACRE, MARCH 5, 1770

$15.20 per $1,000. The gross debt was $88,149,106, and the sinking-funds held $28,563,826, making the net debt, $59,585,280. On Jan. 1, 1905, the gross debt was $92,821,906, sinking-funds held $31,721,409, the net debt was $61,100,496, and the city had a legal right to borrow $3,014,018. The total cost of maintaining the city government was about $15,314,570. Although the county of Suffolk contains also the city of Chelsea and the towns of Revere and Winthrop, Boston receives all the county income, pays all the county expenses, owns the county buildings, and is responsible for the county debt, which, on Jan. 1, 1905, amounted to $3,448,000.

Subways and Basin.—Within the last few years Boston has been the scene of engineering work of large proportions and of vast public utilities. A subway, or underground railway, with its southerly terminus at the junction of Tremont Street and Shawmut Avenue, and its westerly on the Boylston side of the Public Garden, was begun in 1895 and completed in 1898, at a cost of about $4,500,000. Early in 1904 a similar work was finished at a cost of about $3,000,000, to connect the original Subway and elevated systems in the heart of the city with the island district of East Boston. The first Subway is nearly two miles long; the second, about 7,500 feet, of which some 2,700 feet are under water. In 1905 the Rapid Transit Commission was engaged in building a third tunnel, to be adapted for the accommodation of two tracks especially for use by elevated cars and a Subway for two tracks to be used exclusively by surface cars, to extend from a point near the junction of Broadway and Washington Street to Adams Square, Haymarket Square, or Causeway Street. This last work was being done under an Act of 1902. At the same time plans were being perfected for a system of tunnels, connecting Boston, Somerville, and Cambridge, intended to accommodate much of the heavy trucking between railroad freight terminals. The plan involves a network of tunnels beneath the entire wholesale district of the city. To these improvements, of a purely local interest, are to be added two of wider and more general importance. The first is the construction of the Charles River basin, authorized by Act of Congress, providing that the Commonwealth of Massachusetts shall maintain the necessary depth and width of channel for the commerce of the river, as fixed by the Secretary of War, and that the Basin Commissioner shall operate the lock at its own expense, as a free navigable waterway of the United States. The basin is to be formed by damming the river and dredging the stream, and besides its large commercial value it will form one of the handsomest municipal ornamentations in the world. The second of these improvements is the construction of a new system of harbor docks, now under way, by the State government at an initial cost of $1,000,000, a noteworthy feature of which will be a long dock—some 5,000 feet from East Boston to Governor's Island, and perhaps clear around the base of that island—with railroad connection with all the systems at the port, and with a depth of water of from thirty-five to forty feet right off the dock.

Commerce.—During the calendar year 1904, the imports of merchandise had a value of $86,269,614—an increase over that of the previous year of $3,507,929; exports, $87,851,927—an increase of $1,434,370; making the total foreign trade $174,121,541. The tonnage movement of the year was: Entrances, American sailing-vessels, 11,972; American steam-vessels, 154,062; foreign sailing-vessels, 69,548; foreign steam-vessels, 2,407,314;—total sailing, 81,520; total steam, 2,561,376; and clearances: American sailing-vessels, 52,960; American steam, 135,953; foreign sailing, 67,636; foreign steam, 1,901,231;—total sailing, 120,596; total steam, 2,037,184. The number of vessels that entered was 1,360, and that cleared, 1,288. During the year 8,799 vessels of all grades, having a gross tonnage of 8,410,364, arrived at Boston from domestic ports. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, the largest amounts of imports were from England, $19,302,817; Egypt and the Sudan, $5,500,000; Germany, $5,313,280; Cuba, $5,202,500; and British India, $5,084,272; and the largest exports were to England, $72,013,114; the Netherlands, $3,020,162; Scotland, $2,998,483; Belgium, $2,468,565; Canada, $2,020,335; Germany,

$1,946,766; and British West Africa, $1,181,004.

Manufactures.—According to the United States census of 1900, Boston had 7,247 manufacturing and mechanical industries, which were operated on a total capital of $143,311,376; employed 72,142 persons, exclusive of proprietors, firm members, and salaried officials; paid for wages $39,184,191, for expenses $23,652,792, and for materials used in manufacturing $99,557,019; and had a combined product valued at $206,081,767. The principal industries, with the value of their output, were: sugar and molasses refining, $15,746,547; printing and publishing newspapers and periodicals, $10,490,646; foundry and machine-shop products, $9,371,928; men's clothing (in factories), $8,601,431; book and job printing and publishing, $8,183,215; malt liquors, $7,518,668; bread and bakery products, $4,566,953; confectionery, $4,455,184; boots and shoes (in factories), $3,882,655; roasting and grinding coffee and spices, $3,696,544; cigars and cigarettes, $3,504,603; rubber and elastic goods, $3,139,783; boot and shoe cut stock, $3,120,039; steam-fitting and heating apparatus, $2,876,327; furniture (in factories), $2,849,734; musical instruments, $2,839,451; and patent medicines, $1,980,191.

Banking.—Besides from fifteen to twenty each of safe deposit and loan and trust companies, savings-banks, and co-operative banks, there were, at the end of 1904, twenty-seven national banks, with aggregate capital of $27,700,000; surplus, $14,456,000; undivided profits, $7,957,883; individual deposits, $124,455,450; loans and discounts, $154,090,698; outstanding circulation, $7,952,872; reserve required, $44,720,984; reserve held, $45,446,147; and assets and liabilities balancing at $282,850,805. In the year ending Sept. 30, 1904, the exchanges at the United States clearing-house here amounted to $6,837,767,883—an increase in a year of $418,495,733.

Churches.—Boston contains upward of 300 churches, of which the Roman Catholic are the most numerous. The most noticeable edifice is that of Trinity (Protestant Episcopal), with its chapel, on the corner of Clarendon Street and Huntington Avenue, one of the largest and most handsomely decorated churches in the United States, planned by the late Henry H. Richardson, and erected at a cost of $750,000. Many sacred and historic interests cluster about King's Chapel, a venerable building erected by the Episcopalians in 1754, on the site of their first religious edifice in Boston. It is on the corner of School and Tremont streets, and in its burying-ground, the first one laid out in the city, are the graves of Isaac Johnson, Governor Winthrop, John Cotton, and other founders and makers of the city. The new Old South Church preserves the memories of the original Old South of Revolutionary War celebrity. It is on the corner of Boylston and Dartmouth Streets, and has a very pleasing interior and a tower 248 feet high. Christ Church, near Copp Hill, on Salem Street, is the oldest church edifice in the city, dating from 1722, containing a chime of bells, and being famous for having the signal for Paul Revere to arouse the people flashed from its tower. A campanile 176 feet high, surrounded with a frieze containing colossal statues designed by Bartholdi, is a marked feature of the First Baptist Church, a massive stone edifice in the form of a Greek cross, on Clarendon Street and Commonwealth Avenue. The Central Congregational Church, cruciform in shape, has a stone spire 240 feet high, and is elegant in its decorative appointments. Other churches of note are the Cathedral of the Holy Cross (Roman Catholic), on Washington and Walden streets, Mediæval Gothic in style, 364 feet long by 170 feet wide, with a wealth of memorial stained-glass windows and an altar of onyx and marble; the Old South, built in 1729, used as a meeting-place of patriots in 1775–6, and afterward by the British as a cavalry drill-room, containing an historical collection and lecture hall; Arlington Street Unitarian, with a chime of bells; Emmanuel (Protestant Episcopal); Church of the Advent; and the Hollis Street Church.

Schools and Colleges.—The cost of maintaining the public-school system is about $3,560,000 per annum. The system in 1905 comprised one normal school, twelve Latin and high schools, fifty-eight grammar-schools, ninety-two kindergartens, and 691 primary schools, with a

total of 2,052 teachers and 92,276 pupils. There were also thirty-five special public schools, the Horace Mann, Spectacle Island, evening high, elementary, and drawing schools, and seven for special classes. Thirty-seven rooms are used for instruction in wood-working, and twenty-nine for courses in cookery. A considerable number of school-houses are open on certain evenings each week during the winter months for instruction in subjects other than those taught in the ordinary evening schools, and for lecture, musical, and other entertainments.

CASTING TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOR.

The institutions for higher education include Boston University (Methodist Episcopal), opened in 1873; Boston College (Roman Catholic), 1864; Massachusetts Institute of Technology (proposed in 1905 to become a part of Harvard University), 1865; Boston Normal School; the Perkins Institution for the Blind, founded in 1831 by the late Dr. Samuel G. Howe, on Mount Washington, in South Boston; Massachusetts Normal Art School; School of Theology, Boston University; St. John's Ecclesiastical Seminary (Roman Catholic); Law School, Boston University; Evening Law School, Y. M. C. A.; College of Physicians and Surgeons; Harvard Medical School; Tufts College Medical School; Harvard and Tufts Dental Schools; Massachusetts College of Pharmacy; and training schools for nurses connected with nearly all the public and denominational hospitals. In 1905 the managers of the available portion of the accumulation of the fund left to the city by Benjamin Franklin for educational purposes, then amounting to about $410,000, and which Andrew Carnegie offered to duplicate, were considering plans for the establishment of a Franklin Institute on lines similar to those of the Cooper Union in New York city.

Among other educational institutions of note are the Society of Natural History with a valuable library and cabinets, housed in a building on Berkeley Street; the Museum of Fine Arts, an imposing building of red brick, with terra-cotta bas-reliefs, copings, and mouldings, containing halls of statuary, casts, and Egyptian antiquities, galleries of paintings and engravings, and a library; the Public Library, the second largest in the United States, containing the noteworthy Tosti collection of engravings and upward of 850,000 bound volumes; the Boston

Athenæum, a freestone structure in the Palladian style, founded in 1807, and containing a large library, reading-room, and a collection of choice statuary; and the New England Historic-Genealogical Society, in a building of its own containing a collection of antiquities and a library

VIEW OF THE LINES ON BOSTON NECK.

of 30,000 bound volumes and 31,000 pamphlets. Boston is exceedingly rich in libraries of all grades; nearly every public, educational, and sectarian institution, besides those mentioned, has a library in keeping with its particular character.

Charities.—The Massachusetts General Hospital, on Charles River, between Allen and Bridge streets, is a great granite structure, and the City Hospital, also of granite with brick wings, stands in a plot of ten acres of ground in Harrison Avenue near Concord Street. Near the Perkins Institution, on an elevated site, is the Carney Hospital, under the management of the Sisters of Charity. The Marine Hospital, Soldiers' Home, and United States Naval Hospital are in Chelsea; the House of Industry is on Deer Island; the Almshouse on Long Island; the Reformatory on Rainsford Island; the House of Correction is in South Boston; the Hospital for the Insane and the Parental School are in West Roxbury; and the Massachusetts State Prison is in Charlestown.

Notable Buildings.—Foremost among the buildings of large interest is Faneuil Hall, in Dock Square, the heart of the business section, widely known as the "Cradle of Liberty," erected by Peter Faneuil, a Huguenot merchant, in 1742, and presented by him to the town. It was burned down in 1761, rebuilt in 1768, enlarged to present dimensions in 1805, and is now used for a market (basement) and public hall (second floor). The hall contains portraits of early national and State celebrities. Near this building is Quincy Market, a granite structure 530 by 50 feet on the ground and two stories high, and in State Street, close by, is the United States Custom-house, also of granite, built in the form of a Greek cross, with porticos on each front, at a cost of $1,076,000. Near Court Square is the old County Court House, and in the rear of this, on School Street, is the City Hall, built of white Concord granite, in the Italian Renaissance style, with a dome 109 feet high. The Exchange Building, containing the Stock Exchange, and the Chamber of Commerce are notable for their massive architecture.

The Masonic Temple is on Tremont and Boylston streets opposite the Common, and opposite to it is the Young Men's Christian Union building. Odd Fellows' Hall is on Berkeley Street, a white granite building. Near the City Hospital is the Roman Catholic Home for Orphans, Boston College, and the Church of the Immaculate Conception. The New England Conservatory of Music is on Franklin Square. The United States Post-Office and Sub-Treasury, an ornate granite pile, is claimed to be the most imposing building in New England. In the district burned over in the great fire of 1872 are many of the handsomest commercial and office buildings in the country.

Parks, Monuments, etc.—The Common is a park of forty-eight acres in the centre of the city, dating from 1634, and being dedicated to the use of the public forever. Near its centre are a pond and fountain, marking the site of the ancient frog pond. There is a Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument, ninety feet high, with four statues of heroic size at the base and a surmounting figure of America guarded by four eagles, on Flagstaff Hill. The Public Garden, a tract of twenty-two acres, is separated from the Common by Charles Street, and was opened to the public in 1859. In addition to the Soldiers' and Sailors' Monument on the Common, and the Soldiers' monuments in the Charlestown, West Roxbury, and Dorchester districts, there are the Crispus Attucks and

VIEW OF BOSTON FROM DORCHESTER HEIGHTS IN 1774.

the Robert G. Shaw monuments on the Common; statues of Edward Everett, George Washington, Charles Sumner, and Thomas Cass in the Public Garden; Benjamin Franklin and Josiah Quincy in front of the City Hall; Samuel Adams in Adams Square; the Emancipation group in Park Square; the Ether Monument in the Public Garden; and the statue of John Winthrop, formerly on Scollay Square (temporarily in storage in 1905 on account of tunnel construction). There are also fountains or vases in Franklin, Blackstone, Independence, Central, Sullivan, and Jackson squares, Massachusetts Avenue, and Union Park; the Lyman fountain in Eaton Square; the Brewer fountain on the Common; the "Maid of the Mist" and three other fountains in the Public Garden.

History.—The first settlement was made on March 17, 1630, and on July 4, 1632, the town was made the capital of Massachusetts Colony. In the following year fortifications were erected on Castle Island, the site of the present Fort Independence. The Common was set apart for public use in 1634; the first post-office was opened and the first printing in the colonies was done in 1639; and the first mint was opened and the "pine-tree shilling" coined in 1651. In 1658 the first town hall was erected on piles or pillars, the space underneath being used as a market. The foundation of the Old South Church was laid in 1669; the first disaster by fire occurred Nov. 2, 1676, when forty-six dwellings and the North Meeting-house were burned; the second fire, Aug. 8–9, 1679, destroyed eighty-eight dwellings and seventy warehouses; and the first American newspaper published, the *Boston News Letter*, was issued April 24, 1704. A third fire, in 1711, destroyed nearly one hundred buildings, including the First Church. The first epidemic, small-pox, broke out in 1721, raged severely, and nearly caused rioting through opposition to inoculation; and the first serious rioting occurred in 1747, owing to acts of the British press-gang. In 1755 the town was heavily shaken by an earthquake, and on March 20, 1760, it had its severest fire, 349 buildings being burned. Sturdy opposition to the British "Stamp Act" led to rioting in August, 1765. On March 5, 1770, occurred what is known in American history as the "Boston Massacre." The British commissioners of customs had arrived in May, 1768, and entered on the discharge of their duty with so much diligence that after the seizure of the trading-sloop *Liberty* they were compelled by the excited populace

to flee for safety first to the warship *Romney* and afterward to Castle William in the harbor. The presence of British troops in the city was a constant source of irritation, and but a small spark was needed to set a large flame. The spark was furnished by a quarrel between a rope-maker and a soldier in which the latter was struck. A fight between several soldiers and rope-makers ensued. A few evenings afterward about 700 citizens assembled to attack the soldiers. An assault was made near the custom-house, the soldiers began firing, and three citizens were killed and five dangerously wounded, Crispus Attucks, a mulatto, and leader of the assailants, being among the slain. Within a few minutes several thousand excited citizens were in the streets, but Governor Hutchinson succeeded in inducing them to refrain from violence. The people then demanded the instant removal of the troops and the trial of Captain Preston and his men for murder. On March 12 the troops were removed to Castle William. Captain Preston and six of his men were tried and acquitted, their defence being undertaken by John Adams and Josiah Quincy.

The "Boston Tea Party" was held in December, 1773, when about sixty men, disguised as Indians, boarded two vessels laden with tea, tore open the hatches, and threw 340 chests overboard, as a protest against the levy of taxes without the consent of the people. The populace had previously refused to permit any cargo of tea to be landed, and a number of ships had been obliged to leave port with their cargoes untouched. In the following year the British Parliament passed a bill closing the port of Boston and transferring the seat of government to Salem. The bill became a law on March 31, 1774, and its effects so exasperated the populace that General Gage, the British commander, began to fortify Boston Neck. Aided by General Gates, adjutant-general of the Continental army, Washington determined to prepare for a siege of Boston, and to confine the British to the peninsula or drive them to sea, and a regular siege was maintained from July 2, 1775, when Washington took command of the army at Cambridge, till March 17, 1776, when the British evacuated the city and retired to Halifax. For details of the engagement between the two armies on June 17, 1775, see BUNKER HILL, BATTLE OF.

The principal subsequent events in local history were the Peace Jubilee, with concert of 10,371 voices and 1,094 instruments, in June, 1869; International Peace Jubilee, with chorus of 20,000 voices and orchestra of 1,000 pieces in June–July, 1872; great fire, burning over eighty acres, and causing property loss of between $75,000,000 and $80,000,000, Nov. 9–11, 1872; celebration of centennial of battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1875; observance of 250th anniversary of settlement of the city, Sept. 17, 1880; foreign exhibition in 1883; introduction of electric street railroads, maritime exhibition, and fire involving loss of $5,000,000, all in 1889; first world's convention of Woman's Christian Temperance Union in 1891; and the completion of the first Subway in 1898.

Boston Common, a park of about 45 acres set apart by the first settlers for public use, which can never be sold nor changed in character.

Boston Massacre. See BOSTON.

Boston Port Act. See BOSTON.

Boston Protest Against Taxation. See ADAMS, SAMUEL.

Boston Tea Party. See BOSTON; HUTCHINSON, THOMAS.

Botetourt, NORBORNE BERKELEY, BARON, colonial governor; born in Gloucestershire, England, about 1717. He succeeded Sir Jeffrey Amherst as governor-in-chief of Virginia, and arrived there in November, 1768. With a generous mind he perceived the righteousness of colonial indignation because of the taxation schemes of the ministry, and he forwarded to England remonstrances of the representatives of the people, with his own opinion against the wisdom and justice of Parliamentary measures. A malarial fever which attacked him was so aggravated by chagrin because of the aspect of political affairs that he died at his post Oct. 15, 1770.

Boudinot, ELIAS, philanthropist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., May 2, 1740; began the practice of law in New Jersey, and was an early advocate of freedom for the American colonies. Congress appointed him commissary-general of prisoners in 1777; and during the same year he was elected

a member of that body. He became its president in 1782, and as such he signed the ratification of the treaty of peace. Mr. Boudinot resumed the practice of law in 1789. In 1796 Washington appointed him superintendent of the mint, which position he held until 1805, when he resigned all public employments, and retired to Burlington. In 1816 he was chosen the first president of the AMERICAN BIBLE SOCIETY (*q. v.*), to which and to benevolent institutions he made munificent donations. Dr. Boudinot was the author of *The Age of Revelation; Second Advent of the Messiah;* and *Star in the West, or an Attempt to Discover the Long-lost Tribes of Israel.* He died in Burlington, N. J., Oct. 24, 1821.

Bougainville, LOUIS ANTOINE DE, navigator; born in Paris, France, Nov. 11, 1729; he served as aide-de-camp to the Marquis de Montcalm during the French and Indian War, and on his return to Europe was made a colonel and a Knight of St. Louis. In 1778 he commanded a division of the ships of the line, and was in several engagements between the Franch and English fleets. When De Grasse was defeated by Rodney, Bougainville was in command of the *Auguste,* and by clever manœuvring escaped with eight of his ships to St. Eustace. He died Aug. 31, 1811.

Bound Brook, ACTION AT. A considerable force under General Lincoln, detached to guard the upper valley of the Raritan River, in New Jersey, was stationed at Bound Brook in April, 1777. It was not far from a British post at New Brunswick. Owing to the negligence of a militia guard, Lincoln came near being surprised by a detachment under Cornwallis, which marched out of New Brunswick (April 13) and fell suddenly upon the Americans. The latter, after a sharp action, escaped with the loss of twenty men, two pieces of artillery, and some baggage.

Boundary. See ASHBURTON; MASON AND DIXON LINE; SAN JUAN.

Boundary Commission. See CLEVELAND, GROVER; VENEZUELA.

Bounty-Jumper, a term applied during the Civil War to any one who became a recruit in the army simply to procure the bounty paid to volunteers for enlisting, and then deserted. There were men who made bounty-jumping a regular business. They would enlist in one place under an assumed name, go to the front, and after receiving the bounty, desert, and repeat the operation under another name and in some other place.

Bouquet, HENRY, military officer; born in Rolle, Switzerland, in 1719. In 1748 he was lieutenant-colonel of the Swiss Guard in the service of Holland; and he entered the English service with the same rank in 1756. In 1762 he was made colonel, and in 1765 brigadier-general. Bouquet was active in western Pennsylvania in connection with operations against Fort Duquesne; also in relieving Fort Pitt in 1763. During Pontiac's war Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh, Pa.) was in imminent danger, and Colonel Bouquet was sent to its relief. As soon as the Indians heard of the approach of Bouquet, they raised the siege. Uncertain of their strength and motives, Bouquet left Fort Bedford and went to Fort Ligonier. He pushed on towards Fort Pitt, with the troops in light marching order, and 340 pack-horses carrying flour. On Aug. 5 his advanced guard was attacked near Bushy Run by Indians in ambuscade. A general action ensued, the Indians being continually repulsed. After a severe conflict, they were defeated and dispersed. In these engagements the English lost fifty killed and sixty wounded. Colonel Bouquet reached Fort Pitt four days afterwards, and the campaign was closed. In 1764 he subdued the Ohio Indians, and compelled the Shawnees and Delawares to make peace. Dr. William Smith, of Philadelphia, wrote a history of this expedition. Bouquet died in Pensacola in 1766. See DUQUESNE, FORT.

Boutell, HENRY SHERMAN. See SHIPBUILDING.

Bouton, NATHANIEL, clergyman; born in Norwalk, Conn., June 29, 1797; graduated at Yale College in 1821; ordained a minister of the Congregational Church in 1825, and was appointed State historian of New Hampshire in 1867. Among his writings are a *History of Education in New Hampshire; The Fathers of the New Hampshire Ministry; History of Concord, N. H.; Collections of the New Hampshire Historical Society;* and many volumes of provincial

records. He died in Concord, N. H., June 6, 1878.

Boutwell, GEORGE SEWALL, statesman; born in Brookline, Mass., Jan. 28, 1818; the son of a farmer; studied law, but never practised it, turning his attention to politics. He was seven times chosen to a seat in the Massachusetts legislature, and became the leader of the Democratic party in his State. In 1850 he was chosen governor of Massachusetts, and was re-elected in 1852. In 1862 he was elected to Congress, and was twice re-elected. He was one of the managers of the impeachment of President Johnson, and was Secretary of the Treasury from 1869 to 1873, when he became a member of the United States Senate, his term ending in 1879. He published *Educational Topics and Institutions; The Constitution of the United States; The Crisis of the Republic; Sixty Years in Public Affairs,* etc. He died in Groton, Mass., Feb. 27, 1905.

Bowditch, NATHANIEL, mathematician and astronomer; born in Salem, Mass., March 26, 1773; learned the business of a ship-chandler, and then spent nine years on the sea, attaining the rank of master. With great native talent and equal industry, he became one of the greatest men of science of his time. While he was yet on the sea he published (1800) his *Practical Navigator.* He made the first entire translation into English of La Place's *Mécanique Céleste,* and published it, in 4 volumes, in 1829, with valuable commentaries. La Place added much to his work many years after, and Bowditch translated this supplement also; and it was published under the editorial care of Prof. Benjamin Peirce. He was a member of the principal scientific societies in Europe. He died in Boston, Mass., March 16, 1838.

Bowdoin, JAMES, statesman; born in Boston, Aug. 8, 1727; was a descendant of Pierre Bowdoin, a Huguenot who fled to America from persecution in France. He was graduated at Harvard in 1745, and became a member of the General Court, a Senator of Massachusetts, and a councillor. He espoused the cause of the colonists, was president of the Massachusetts Council in 1775, and was chosen president of the convention that framed the State constitution. He succeeded Hancock as governor. By vigorous measures he suppressed the rebellion led by DANIEL SHAYS (*q. v.*). He died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 6, 1790. His son JAMES, born Sept. 22, 1752; died Oct. 11, 1811; also was graduated at Harvard (1771), and afterwards spent a year at Oxford. He was minister to Spain from 1805 to 1808; and while in Paris he purchased an extensive library, philosophical apparatus, and a collection of paintings, which, with a fine cabinet of minerals, he left at his death to Bowdoin College, so named in honor of his father.

Bowen, HERBERT WOLCOTT, diplomatist; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Feb. 29, 1856; studied at the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, in Europe, and at Yale College; was graduated at the Columbia Law School in 1881; and practised in New York city. In 1890 he was appointed consul at Barcelona, and in 1895 consul-general; later was United States minister and consul-general to Persia; and in 1901 became minister to Venezuela. With the consent of the United States government he represented Venezuela in the proceedings which resulted in the settlement of the debt claims of Great Britain, Germany, and Italy by the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague in 1903–04.

Bowen, THOMAS M., lawyer; born near Burlington, Va., Oct. 26, 1835; received an academic education; admitted to the bar in 1853; member of the State legislature in 1856; and served in the Union army during the civil war, attaining the rank of brevet brigadier-general. After the war he settled in Arkansas, where he served as a justice of the Supreme Court in 1867–71; was appointed governor of Idaho in 1871; and later settled in Colorado, where he resumed practice. On the organization of the State government he was elected a judge of the 4th Judicial District, a post he held for four years; was a member of the State legislature in 1882, and of the United States Senate in 1883–89. After settling in Colorado he engaged in large mining enterprises.

Bowie, JAMES, military officer; born in Burke county, Ga., about 1790; took an active part in the Texas revolution, and in January, 1836, was ordered to San Antonio de Bexar, where he joined Colonels Travis and Crockett, and was

killed with them at the taking of the ALAMO (*q. v.*), March 6, 1836. He was the inventor of the Bowie knife.

Bowles, SAMUEL, journalist; born in Springfield, Mass., Feb. 9, 1826; entered the printing-office of the Springfield *Republican* while a boy, and soon became the general manager of the paper. On the death of his father in 1851 the entire management devolved on him. The paper acquired the largest circulation of any daily paper in New England outside of Boston, and exerted a large influence not only throughout New England but in the country at large. In 1872 the *Republican* became an independent paper and supported Mr. Greeley. He died in Springfield, Mass., Jan. 16, 1878.

Bowyer, FORT, ATTACK UPON. At the entrance to Mobile Bay, 30 miles from the village of Mobile, was Fort Bowyer (afterwards Fort Morgan), occupying the extremity of a narrow cape on the eastern side of the entrance, and commanding the channel between it and Fort Dauphin opposite. It was a small work, in semi-circular form towards the channel, without bomb-proofs, and mounting only twenty guns, nearly all of them 12-pounders. It was the chief defence of Mobile; and in it Jackson, on his return from Pensacola, placed Maj. William Lawrence and 130 men. On Sept. 12, 1814, a British squadron appeared off Mobile Point with land troops, and very soon Lieutenant-Colonel Nichols appeared in rear of the fort with a few marines and 600 Indians. The squadron consisted of the *Hermes,* twenty-two guns; *Sophia,* eighteen; *Caron,* twenty; and *Anaconda,* eighteen — the whole under Captain Percy, the commander of a squadron of nine vessels which Jackson drove from Pensacola Bay. By a skilful use of his cannon, Lawrence dispersed parties who tried to cast up intrenchments and sound the channel. Early in the afternoon of the 15th the British began an attack on land and water. The garrison adopted as the signal for the day "Don't give up the fort." A fierce and general battle ensued, and continued until half-past five o'clock, when the flag of the *Hermes* was shot away. Lawrence ceased firing to ascertain whether she had surrendered. This humane act was answered by a broadside from another vessel. A raking fire soon disabled the *Hermes.* At length the flagstaff of the fort was shot away, when the ships redoubled their fire. Supposing the fort had surrendered, the British leader on land assailed it with his Indians. He was soon undeceived. They were driven back by a terrible storm of grape-shot, and fled in terror. The battered ships withdrew, all but the *Hermes.* She was set on fire by her friends, and at midnight her magazine exploded. The British, who had brought to bear upon Fort Bowyer ninety-two pieces of artillery, and arrayed over 1,300 men against a garrison of 130, were repulsed with a loss of 232 men, of whom 162 were killed. The loss of the Americans was four men killed and four wounded. See MOBILE; MORGAN AND GAINES, FORTS.

Boxers. See CHINA.

Boycotting, a practice which derives its name from Capt. C. C. Boycott, of Lough Mask House, in Mayo, Ireland, who in 1880, as land agent of Lord Erne, an Irish nobleman, evicted a large number of tenants. These with their friends refused to either work for him or trade with him, and would not permit others to do so. Finally sixty Orangemen from the north of Ireland, armed with revolvers and supported by a strong escort of cavalry, organized themselves into a "Boycott relief expedition," and after gathering his crops carried him to a place of safety. In the United States and England the boycott is sometimes used by trade unions in times of strikes. More or less stringent laws against boycotting have been enacted in Illinois, Wisconsin, Colorado, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Michigan, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, and Vermont.

Boyd, JOHN PARKER, military officer; born in Newburyport, Mass., Dec. 21, 1764; entered the military service of the United States in 1786, but soon afterwards went to the East Indies and entered the Mahratta service, in which he rose to the rank of commander, and at one time led 10,000 men. He first raised three battalions of 500 men each, with a few English officers, whom, as well as his men, he hired, at a certain amount a month, to

any of the Indian princes who needed their services. Their equipment, including guns and elephants, was at his own expense. He was at one time in the pay of Holkar, in the Peishwa's service, and afterwards

JOHN PARKER BOYD.

in that of Nizam Ali Khan. Arriving at Madras in July, 1789, he was given, by the ruler, the command of 10,000 men. When demands for his services almost ceased, he sold out and went to Paris. In 1808 he returned to the United States, and re-entered the army as colonel of the 4th Infantry on Oct. 7 of that year. In that capacity he was distinguished in the battle at TIPPECANOE (*q. v.*), Nov. 7, 1811. Boyd was commissioned brigadier-general Aug. 26, 1812. He was in command of 1,500 men in the expedition down the St. Lawrence in 1813; and fought bravely at Chrysler's Field, in Canada, Nov. 11, 1813. He led his brigade in the capture of Fort George, Upper Canada. General Boyd was appointed naval officer at the port of Boston early in 1830, and died there Oct. 4 of that year.

Boyden, SETH, inventor; born in Foxboro, Mass., Nov. 17, 1788; was educated at a district school. His mechanical inclination led him to pass much time experimenting in a blacksmith shop. He first devised a machine for making nails and files. Later he designed a machine to split leather, and in 1815 took it to Newark, N. J. and engaged in leather manufacture. In 1816 he made a machine to cut brads, and afterwards invented patent leather, which he manufactured until 1831, when with a system of his own he began making malleable-iron castings. In 1835 he gave his attention to steam-engines, and both changed the crank in locomotives to the straight axle and made the cut-off to take the place of the throttle-valve. He went to California in 1849, but meeting with no success, returned to New Jersey, engaged in farming, and produced a variety of strawberry never before equalled in size or quality. He spent the greater part of his life in Newark, N. J., where a statue of him has been erected. He died in Middleville, N. J., March 31, 1870.

Boydton Plank Road, BATTLE OF. After the National troops had taken possession of the Weldon Railroad, the Boydton plank road became the chief channel of communication for Lee in that quarter, and he extended his intrenchments along its line to the vicinity of Hatcher's Run. The corps of Warren and Parke were sent to assail the extreme right of these intrenchments, while Hancock's corps and Gregg's cavalry, well towards its left, should swing around to the west side of Hatcher's Run, sweep across the Boydton road, and seize the Southside Railway. The Boydton road was a few miles west of the Weldon Railway. The movement began on the morning of Oct. 27, 1864, and at nine o'clock the Confederate line was struck, but it was not broken. Warren's corps made its way to the west of Hatcher's Run to gain the Confederate rear. Crawford's division got entangled and broken in an almost impassable swamp. An attempt of a part of Howard's corps to form a junction with Crawford's troops was defeated by the tangled swamp. These movements had been eagerly watched by the Confederates. Heth was sent by Hill to strike Hancock. It was done at 4 P.M. The blow first fell upon Pierce's brigade, and it gave way, leaving two guns behind. The Confederates were pursuing, when they, in turn, were struck by the Nationals, driven back, and the two guns recaptured. Fully 1,000 Confederates were made prisoners. Others, in their flight,

rushed into Crawford's lines, and 200 of them were made prisoners. Meanwhile Hancock had been sorely pressed on his left and rear by five brigades under Wade Hampton. Gregg fought them, and with infantry supports maintained his ground until dark. In these encounters Hancock lost about 1,500 men, and the Confederates about an equal number. Hancock withdrew at midnight, and the whole National force retired behind their intrenchments at Petersburg. The movement was intended to favor Butler's operations on the north side of the James River.

Boynton, HENRY VAN NESS, military officer; born in West Stockbridge, Mass., July 22, 1835; received a commission as major in the 35th Ohio Volunteer Infantry at the outbreak of the Civil War and served during the Tennessee campaign; received the brevet of brigadier-general for gallant conduct at the battles of Chickamauga and Chattanooga; became chairman of the Chickamauga and Chattanooga Military Park, and a brigadier-general of volunteers in the American-Spanish War. He is author of *Sherman's Historical Raid*, etc.

Boys in Blue and **Boys in Gray,** popular nicknames of the National and Confederate soldiers respectively.

Braceti, or **Brazito,** BATTLE OF. Col. Alexander W. Doniphan, in command of 1,000 mounted volunteers from Missouri, was detached from General Kearny's command for independent service. In November, 1846, he marched towards Chihuahua, Mexico, after forcing the Navajo Indians to make a treaty of peace. His object was to join the forces under General Wool. At Braceti, or Brazito, in the valley of the Rio del Norte, not far from El Paso, he was attacked, in his camp, by a large Mexican force (Dec. 22) under Gen. Ponce de Leon, who sent a black flag, bearing the device of a skull and crossbones, to the American commander, with the message, "We will neither take nor give quarter." Doniphan was surprised, and his men had not time to saddle their horses before the foe—infantry, cavalry, and artillery—assailed them. Doniphan hastily drew up his men in front of his camp. The Mexicans fired three rounds in quick succession, and the Missourians all fell upon their faces. The Mexicans, supposing them all to be slain, rushed forward to plunder the dead, when the Americans suddenly arose, poured deadly volleys from their rifles, killed about 200 of the foe, seized their cannon, and dispersed the whole body of the assailants.

Brackenridge, HUGH HENRY, jurist; born in Scotland in 1748; was graduated at Princeton in 1771, in the same class with James Madison. He and Philip Freneau together wrote *The Rising Glory of America*, a dialogue which formed a part of the graduating exercises. During the Whiskey Insurrection in 1794 he used all his influence to bring about a settlement between the government and the rebels. He also wrote *Incidents of the Insurrection in Western Pennsylvania* in defence of his action. He died in Carlisle, Pa., June 25, 1816.

Brackett, ALBERT GALLATIN, military officer; born in Cherry Valley, N. Y., Feb. 14, 1829; served in the 4th Indiana Volunteer Regiment in the Mexican War; re-entered the army as captain in the 2d Cavalry in 1855 and distinguished himself in actions against the Comanche Indians. He commanded the cavalry at Blackburn's Ford and the first battle of Bull Run in 1861. He was brevetted colonel of volunteers and was made colonel in the regular service in 1879. He published a *History of the United States Cavalry; General Lane's Brigade in Central Mexico*, etc. He died in Washington, D. C., June 25, 1896.

Braddock, EDWARD, military officer; born in Perthshire, Scotland, about 1695; entered the army as ensign in the Coldstream Guards; served in the wars in Flanders; received a commission as brigadier-general in 1746, and major-general in March, 1754. He arrived in Virginia in February, 1755, and, placed in command of an expedition against Fort Duquesne, began his march from Will's Creek (Cumberland, Md.), June 10, with about 2,000 men, regulars and provincials. Anxious to reach his destination before Fort Duquesne should receive reinforcements, he made forced marches with 1,200 men, leaving Colonel Dunbar, his second in command, to follow with the remainder and the wagon-train. On the morning of July 9 the little army forded the Monongahela River, and advanced in solid platoons

along the southern shores of that stream. Washington saw the perilous arrangement of the troops after the fashion of European tactics, and he ventured to advise Braddock to disperse his army in open order and employ the Indian mode of fighting in the forests. The haughty general angrily replied, "What! a provincial colonel teach a British general how to fight!" The army moved on, recrossed the river to the north side, and were marching in fancied security at about noon, when they were suddenly assailed by volleys of bullets and clouds of arrows on their front and flanks. They had fallen into an ambush, against which Washington had vainly warned Braddock. The assailants were French regulars, Canadians, and Indians, less than 1,000 in number, under De Beaujeu, who had been sent from Fort Duquesne by Contrecœur (see DUQUESNE, FORT), and who fell at the first onslaught. The suddenness of the attack and the horrid war-whoop of the Indians, which the British regulars had never heard before, disconcerted them, and they fell into great confusion. Braddock, seeing the peril, took the front of the fight, and by voice and example encouraged his men. For more than two hours the battle raged fearfully. Of eighty-six English officers sixty-three were killed or wounded; so, also, were one-half the private soldiers. All of Braddock's aides were disabled excepting Washington, who, alone unhurt, distributed the general's orders. Braddock had five horses shot under him, and finally he, too, fell, mortally wounded. Competent testimony seems to prove that he was shot by Thomas Faucett, one of the provincial soldiers. His plea in extenuation of the crime was self-preservation. Braddock, who had spurned the advice of Washington about the method of fighting Indians, had issued a positive order that none of the English should protect themselves behind trees, as the French and Indians did. Faucett's brother had taken such a position, and when Braddock perceived it, he struck him to the earth with his sword. Thomas, on seeing his brother fall, shot Braddock in the back. The provincials fought bravely, and nearly all were killed. The remnant of the regulars broke and fled when Braddock fell. Washington, who was left in chief command, perceiving the day was lost, rallied the few provincial troops, and, carrying with him his dying general, gallantly covered the retreat. The enemy did not pursue. The British left their cannon and their dead on the battle-field. Three days after the battle, Braddock died (July 13, 1755), and was buried in the forest more than 50 miles from Cumberland. Washington, surrounded by sorrowing officers, read the funeral service of the Church of England by torch-light at his grave. General Braddock was haughty and egotistical, and his private character was not good, he being known as a gambler and spendthrift.

GENERAL EDWARD BRADDOCK.

Bradford, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Austerfield, Yorkshire, England, in March, 1588; was a passenger in the *Mayflower*. At the early age of seventeen years he made an attempt to leave England with dissenters, for Holland, and suffered imprisonment. He finally joined his dissenting brethren at Amsterdam, learned the art of silk-dyeing, and, coming into the possession of a considerable estate at the age of twenty-one years, he engaged successfully in commerce. One of Mr. Robinson's congregation at Leyden, he accompanied the "Pilgrims" to Amer-

ica, and was one of the foremost in selecting a site for the colony. Before the "Pilgrims" landed, his wife fell into the sea from the *Mayflower*, and was drowned. He succeeded John Carver (April 5, 1621) as governor of Plymouth colony. He cultivated friendly relations with the Indians; and he was annually rechosen governor as long as he lived, excepting in five years. He wrote a history of Plymouth colony from 1620 to 1647, which was published by the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1856. He died in Plymouth, Mass., May 9, 1657. See PILGRIMS.

Bradford, WILLIAM, printer; born in Leicester, England, in 1658. A Friend, or Quaker, he came to America with Penn's early colonists in 1682, and landed near the spot where Philadelphia was afterwards built. He had learned the printer's trade in London, and, in 1686, he printed an almanac in Philadelphia. Mixed up in a political and social dispute in Pennsylvania, and suffering thereby, he removed to New York in 1693, and in that year printed the laws of that colony. He began the first newspaper in New York, Oct. 16, 1725—the *New York Gazette*. He was printer to the government of New York more than fifty years, and for thirty years the only one in the province. He died in New York, May 23, 1752.

Bradley, JOSEPH PHILO, jurist; born in Berne, N. Y., March 14, 1813; was graduated at Rutgers College in 1836; admitted to the bar in Newark, N. J., in 1839; appointed by President Grant justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1870; became the fifth member of the Electoral Commission created by Congress in 1877, and by his concurrence in the judgment of the Republican members of the commission, RUTHERFORD B. HAYES (*q. v.*) became President. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 22, 1892.

Bradstreet, JOHN, military officer; born in Harbling, England, in 1711; was lieutenant-colonel of Pepperell's regiment in the expedition against Louisburg in 1745; and in September, the same year, he was made a captain of a regular regiment. The following year he was appointed lieutenant-governor of St. Johns, Newfoundland—a sinecure place. Braddock ordered him to accompany Shirley to Oswego, in 1755, as his adjutant; and in 1756 he was charged with conveying supplies to Oswego. In 1757 he was appointed captain of a company in the regiment of Royal Americans; and late in the same year he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel of the same regiment, and deputy quartermaster-general, with the rank of colonel. He was quartermaster-general of Abercrombie's forces, with the rank of colonel, in the expedition against Ticonderoga in July, 1758; and in August he led an expedition which captured Fort Frontenac. Bradstreet was with Amherst in his expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1759. In May, 1762, he was commissioned a major-general. Pontiac's war had filled the settlements on the western frontiers with dire alarm, and they sent piteous calls for help. In July, 1764, a little army of 1,100 men, composed chiefly of provincial battalions from New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut, led by Bradstreet, reached Fort Niagara on its way farther westward. Bradstreet found a large concourse of Indians there, of various nations, ready to renew friendship with the English, and expecting presents. The Senecas, to placate the English, brought in prisoners, and ratified a treaty of peace. On his march along the southern shores of Lake Erie, Bradstreet was met by dusky deputations from the Ohio country, who desired to have the chain of friendship brightened; and he made a treaty with the nations dwelling between Lake Erie and the Ohio. He was welcomed at Detroit with expressions of great respect and satisfaction; and from that post he sent a detachment to take possession of Mackinaw. On Sept. 7 the Ottawas and Chippewas met Bradstreet in council, and, cashiering their old chiefs, the young warriors made a covenant of friendship with the English, as brothers, and asked for peace in the name of their wives and children. Pontiac did not appear, but was included in the treaty of peace then made. By that treaty the Indian country became a part of the royal domain; its tribes were bound to render aid to the English troops; and, in return, were promised English protection. Bradstreet died in New York City, Sept. 25, 1774.

Bradstreet, SIMON, colonial governor; born in Lincolnshire, England, in March,

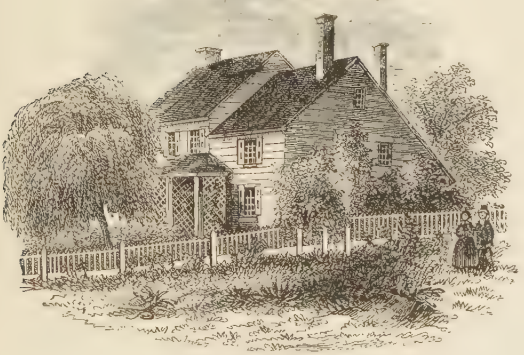
1603. After studying one year in college, he became steward to the Countess of Warwick. He married Anne, a daughter of Thomas Dudley, and was persuaded to engage in the settlement of Massachusetts. Invested with the office of judge, he arrived at Salem in the summer of 1630. The next year he was among the founders of Cambridge, and was one of the first settlers at Andover. Very active, he was almost continually in public life, and lived at Salem, Ipswich, and Boston. He was secretary, agent, and commissioner of the United Colonies of New England; and in 1662 he was despatched to congratulate Charles II. on his restoration. He was assistant from 1630 to 1679, and deputy-governor from 1673 to 1679. From that time till 1686 (when the charter was annulled) he was governor. When, in 1689, Andros was imprisoned, he was restored to the office, which he held until the arrival of Governor Phipps, in 1692, with the new charter. His wife, Anne Bradstreet, was a poetess of considerable merit. Her poems were published in London in 1650, and a second edition was published in Boston in 1678. Simon died in Salem, Mass., March 27, 1697.

Bragg, Braxton, military officer; born in Warren county, N. C., March 22, 1817; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1837; entered the artillery; and served in the Seminole War and in the war with Mexico, receiving for good conduct in the latter several brevets and promotions. The last brevet was that of lieutenant-colonel, for Buena Vista, Feb. 23, 1847. He was made major in 1855; resigned the next year, and lived (an extensive planter) in Louisiana until the breaking out of the Civil War, when (March, 1861) he was made a brigadier-general in the Confederate army. Made major-general in February, 1862, he took an important part in the battle of Shiloh in April. He was made general in place of A. S. Johnston, killed; and in May succeeded Beauregard in command.

John H. Morgan, the guerilla chief, and N. B. Forrest, the leader of a strong cavalry force, had for some time (in 1862) roamed, with very little serious opposition, over Kentucky and Tennessee, preparatory to the invasion of the former by a large Confederate force under General Bragg. Gen. E. Kirby Smith, a native of Connecticut, led Bragg's advance. He entered Kentucky from eastern Tennessee, pushed rapidly to Lexington, after defeating a National force near Richmond, in that State, and was warmly welcomed by the Confederates. The alarmed legislature, sitting at Frankfort, fled to Louisville; while Smith pressed on towards the Ohio, where he was confronted by strong fortifications opposite Cincinnati. The invader recoiled, and, falling back to Frankfort, awaited the arrival of Bragg, who entered Kentucky (Sept. 5) with forty regiments and as many cannon. His advance, 8,000 strong, under General Chalmers, encountered a National force under Colonel Wilder at Mumfordsville, on the line of the Nashville and Louisville Railway. The Confederates were repulsed; but Wilder was compelled to yield to General Polk a few days later. Bragg joined Smith at Frankfort, where the combined armies numbered about 65,000 effective men. He now expected to make an easy march to Louisville, but was confronted by General Buell, who had been marching abreast of Bragg. Buell suddenly turned upon Bragg with about 60,000 troops, and a battle ensued near Perryville (*q. v.*) (Oct. 8, 1862), in which the invaders were so roughly handled that they fled in haste towards eastern Tennessee, followed by their marauding bands, who had plundered the inhabitants in every direction. Bragg soon afterwards abandoned Kentucky.

The armies of Rosecrans and Bragg confronted each other for several months in Tennessee after the battle of Stone River (*q. v.*). Rosecrans remained on the scene of the battle; Bragg was below the Duck River. Finally the Army of the Cumberland, in three divisions, commanded respectively by Generals Thomas, McCook, and Crittenden, began its march (June 23, 1863) from Murfreesboro to Chattanooga. General Burnside, in Kentucky, was ordered to move through the mountains into eastern Tennessee to co-operate with Rosecrans. At that time Bragg's left wing, under General (Bishop) Polk, lay at Shelbyville, behind formidable intrenchments about 5 miles in length, cast up by legally emancipated slaves drawn from northern Georgia and Alabama. General Hardee, with 12,000 men, was at

War Trace, on the railway between Murfreesboro and Chattanooga, and holding the front of rugged hills, behind which was a strongly intrenched camp at Tullahoma. Bragg had about 40,000 men, and Rosecrans 60,000. By skilful movements he manœuvred Bragg out of his strong position. The latter was pressed back to Tullahoma. Rosecrans meanwhile had seized mountain passes on Bragg's front and seriously menaced his flank. Perceiving this, Bragg turned and fled without giving a blow, the Nationals pressing hard upon his rear. Having the advantage of railway communication, the retreating forces very easily kept ahead of their pursuers; and passing rapidly over the Cumberland Mountains towards the Tennessee River, they crossed that stream at Bridgeport, destroying the bridge behind them, and made a rapid march to Chattanooga. The expulsion of Bragg from Tennessee alarmed and disheartened the Confederates, and they felt that everything depended upon their holding Chattanooga, the key to eastern Tennessee and northern Georgia. Towards that point the Army of the Cumberland pressed on slowly; and late in August it had crossed the mountains, and was stretched along the Tennessee River from above Chattanooga many a league westward.



WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS ON THE BRANDYWINE.

General Bragg was relieved of his command soon after his defeat by General Grant at Missionary Ridge in November. He died in Galveston, Tex., Sept. 27, 1876.

Brandy Station, SKIRMISH NEAR. While Meade, with the Army of the Potomac, was halting on the north side of the Rappahannock River, in the summer of 1863, his cavalry were not idle. On Aug. 1, General Buford, with his troopers, dashed across that river, struck Stuart's cavalry, and pushed them back almost to Culpeper Court-House. So vigorous and sudden was the assault that the daring Confederate leader and his staff came near being captured at a house near Brandy Station, where they were about to dine. They left their dinner untouched and immediately decamped, leaving the viands to be eaten by the Union officers. Buford pursued, and from Auburn (the residence of the stanch Virginia Unionist, John Minor Botts) there was a running fight back towards Brandy Station; for, strongly confronted there by Stuart, Buford became a fugitive in turn. In that engagement he lost 140 men, of whom sixteen were killed.

Brandywine, BATTLE ON THE. When Washington learned that Howe was ascending Chesapeake Bay in the fleet of his brother, he marched (Aug. 24, 1777) from Philadelphia to meet him. At about the time he reached Wilmington Howe was landing his army, 18,000 strong, at the head of the Elk River, 54 miles from Philadelphia. Washington's effective force did not exceed 11,000 men, including 1,800 Pennsylvania militia. Howe's objective was Philadelphia, and he began his march (Sept. 3) in that direction through a country swarming with Tories. One division was led by Earl Cornwallis, and the other by General Knyphausen. Washington had advanced almost to Red Clay Creek, and sent General Maxwell with his brigade to form an ambuscade in the direction of the enemy. In a skirmish the British were checked, but moved forward (Sept. 8) to attack Washington and turn his flank. By a dexterous movement in the night, the latter fell back to Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine Creek, above

Wilmington, and took post in a strong position on the hills that skirt the eastern borders of that stream. The astonished Britons gave chase the next morning, but found Washington standing in their path-

VIEW AT CHAD'S FORD ON THE BRANDYWINE.

way to Philadelphia. The two divisions of Howe's army met at Kennet Square (Sept. 10), and the next morning Cornwallis led a large portion of them up the Lancaster road towards the forks of the Brandywine, leaving all their baggage —even their knapsacks—with the other division. The latter moved for Chad's Ford a few hours later in a dense fog. Washington's left wing, composed of the brigades of Muhlenberg and Weedon, of Greene's division, and Wayne's division, with Proctor's artillery, were on the hills east of Chad's Ford. The brigades of Sullivan, Stirling, and Stephen, composing the right wing, extended along the Brandywine Creek to a point above the forks; and 1,000 Pennsylvania militia under General Armstrong were at Pyle's Ford, 2 miles below Chad's. General Maxwell, with 1,000 light troops, was posted on the west side of the creek to dispute the passage of Knyphausen. The latter attempted to dislodge Maxwell, who, after a severe fight, was pushed to the edge of the Brandywine, where he was reinforced. Then he turned upon his pursuers and drove them back to the main line. Perceiving danger of being flanked, Maxwell fled across the stream, leaving its western banks in possession of the enemy. Knyphausen now brought his great guns to bear upon the Americans at Chad's Ford. It was to divert Washington's attention from Cornwallis, who was pushing forward to cross the Brandywine and gain the rear of the Americans. This accomplished, Knyphausen was to cross over, when a simultaneous attack by both parties was to be made. Washington directed Sullivan to cross the Brandywine above and attack Cornwallis, while he (Washington) should cross the stream and assail Knyphausen. Through misinformation, Sullivan failed to perform his part. A message which he sent to Washington kept the latter in suspense a long time. Greene, who had crossed at Chad's Ford with his advanced guard, was recalled; and Cornwallis, in the mean time, had made a wide circuit, crossed the Brandywine, and gained a hill near Birmingham Meeting-house, not far from Sullivan's right, before that officer discovered him. The surprised general informed Washington of his peril, and immediately prepared to attack the enemy. Before he could do so, Cornwallis, with his

rested troops, fell upon Sullivan, and a severe conflict ensued. For a while the result was doubtful. Finally the right wing of the Americans, under General Deborre, gave way; then the left, under Sullivan; but the centre, under Stirling, remained firm for a while. Then it, too,

BIRMINGHAM MEETING-HOUSE.

broke and fled in confusion. Lafayette, who was with this corps, fighting as a volunteer on foot, was badly wounded in his leg. The scattered troops could not be rallied, excepting a few who made a stand at Dilworth. They, too, soon joined the fugitives in the flight towards the main army, closely pursued by the victors, Cornwallis's cannon having made dreadful havoc in the ranks of the Americans. Meanwhile Washington, with Greene and two brigades, had hastened to the aid of the right wing. They met the fugitives, opened their ranks to receive them, and, by a constant cannonade, checked their pursuers; and at a narrow defile the regiments of Stephen and Stewart held the British back until night, when the latter encamped. In the mean time, Knyphausen had crossed at Chad's Ford and attacked the left wing under Wayne. After a gallant fight, the latter, seeing the British gaining his rear, abandoned his cannon and munitions of war and made a disorderly retreat behind the division of Greene. At twilight there was a skirmish near Dilworth between Maxwell and his light troops, lying in ambush to cover the retreat of the Americans, and some British grenadiers. The contest was brief, for darkness put an end to it. The Americans, defeated, marched leisurely to Chester; for the British, who held the field, did not pursue. The next morning (Sept. 12, 1777) Washington gathered his broken army, marched towards Philadelphia, and encamped near Germantown. It was estimated that the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about 1,200; the British, about 800.

Brant, JOHN, Indian chief; son of Joseph Brant; born in the Mohawk village on the Grand River, in Canada, Sept. 27, 1794; took up arms for the British when the War of 1812–15 broke out, and led a party of Indians at the battle of QUEENSTON (*q. v.*). He was then only eighteen years of age, and was conspicuous for his bravery. He had received a good English education at Ancaster and Niagara, and was a diligent student of English authors. Young Brant was an ardent lover of nature, was manly and amiable, and was in every respect an accomplished gentleman. On the death of his father, he became the principal chief of the Six Nations, although he was the fourth and youngest son. Brant was engaged in most of the military events on the Niagara frontier during the war; and at its close he and his young sister Elizabeth occupied

JOHN BRANT.

the homestead at the head of Lake Ontario, and there dispensed a generous hospitality. He went to England in 1821 on business for the Six Nations, and there took occasion to defend the character of his father from the aspersions contained in Campbell's *Gertrude of Wyoming*. He proved that his father was not present at the massacre in Wyoming; but the poet had not the generosity or manliness to strike out of the poem the calumnious words, and so it remains until this day. In 1827 Governor Dalhousie gave him the commission of captain, and as such he appeared as in the engraving. In 1832 he was elected a member of the Provincial Parliament for the county of Haldimand. He died on the Grand River reservation in September, 1832.

Brant, Joseph (Thay-en-da-ne-gea), Mohawk chief; born on the banks of the Ohio River in 1742. In 1761 Sir William Johnson sent him to Dr. Wheelock's school at Hanover, N. H., where he translated portions of the New Testament into the Mohawk language. Brant engaged in the war against Pontiac in 1763, and at

JOSEPH BRANT.

the beginning of the war for independence was secretary to Guy Johnson, the Indian Superintendent. In the spring of 1776 he was in England; and to the ministry he expressed his willingness, and that of his people, to join in the chastisement of the rebellious colonists. It was an unfavorable time for him to make such an

THE BRANT MAUSOLEUM.

offer with an expectation of securing very favorable arrangements for his people, for the ministry were elated with the news of the disasters to the "rebels" at Quebec. Besides, they had completed the bargain for a host of German mercenaries, a part of whom were then on their way to America to crush the rebellion. They concluded the next ship would bring news that the Americans were willing to agree to unconditional submission, the only terms which the imperial government would grant. Brant returned, but to find the Americans successful in many places, and determined to persevere. He took up arms for the British; and in the raids of Tories and Indians in central New York upon the patriotic inhabitants he was often a leader, holding the commission of colonel from the King of England. He prevailed on the Six Nations to make a permanent peace after the war; and in 1786 he went to England the second time, but then for the purpose of collecting funds to build a church on the Indian reservation on the Grand River, in Canada. This was the first church erected in the Upper Province. Brant did much to induce his people to engage in the arts of peace. He died on his estate at the head of Lake Ontario, Canada, Nov. 24, 1807. The remains of Brant rest beneath a handsome mausoleum near the church

on the reservation on the Grand River, Canada. It was erected by the inhabitants of the vicinity in 1850. On the slab that surmounts it is an inscription in commemoration of the chief and of his son John.

Brashear City, MILITARY OPERATIONS NEAR. This town of Louisiana, afterwards Morgan City, was, at the beginning of the Civil War, in a singular country, composed of fertile plantations, extensive forests, sluggish lagoons and bayous, passable and impassable swamps, made dark by umbrageous cypress-trees draped with Spanish moss and festooned with interlacing vines, the earth in many places matted and miry, and the waters abounding in alligators. At that time the whole country was half submerged by the superabundant waters of the Mississippi and its tributaries. A single railroad passed through this country from New Orleans to Brashear City, on the Atchafalaya, a distance of 80 miles, at which point the waters of the great bayou Teche meet those of the Atchafalaya and others. Near Pattersonville, on the Teche, the Confederates had erected fortifications, and gathered troops to dispute the passage of these important waters by National gunboats. Gen. N. P. Banks, in command of the Department of the Gulf, determined to expel the armed Confederates from Brashear City and its vicinity. An expedition for that purpose was led by Gen. Godfrey Weitzel, accompanied by a squadron of gunboats, under Com. McKean Buchanan, brother of the commander of the MERRIMAC (*q. v.*). They penetrated to Brashear City, and then proceeded (Jan. 11, 1863) to attack the works near Pattersonville. Weitzel's infantry were placed in the gunboats, and his cavalry and artillery proceeded by land. They encountered formidable river obstructions—torpedoes, an armored steamboat, and batteries well manned by 1,100 men, on each side of the bayou. These were attacked on the 15th, and in that engagement Buchanan was killed by a rifle-ball that passed through his head. The Confederates were driven from their works, and their monster steamer was abandoned and burned. In this affair the Nationals lost thirty-four men killed and wounded.

Braxton, CARTER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Newington, Va., Sept. 10, 1736; was educated at the College of William and Mary in 1756, and resided in England until 1760. He was a distinguished member and patriot in the Virginia House of Burgesses in supporting the resolutions of Patrick Henry in 1765, and in subsequent assemblies dissolved by the governor. He remained in the Virginia Assembly until royal rule ceased in that colony, and was active in measures for defeating the schemes of Lord Dunmore. Braxton was in the convention at Richmond in 1775, for devising measures for the defence of the colony and the public good; and in December he became the successor of Peyton Randolph in Congress. He remained in that body to vote for and sign the Declaration of Independence. In 1786, after serving in the Virginia legislature, he became one of the executive council. He died in Richmond, Va., Oct. 10, 1797.

Brazil. An event of great interest to Americans was the overthrow of the Brazilian empire, the last monarchy in the New World, and the establishment of a republic in November, 1889. A constitution was adopted, framed on the American model, and Fonseca was the first President. Brazil was included in the reciprocity arrangements of the Harrison administration. Peixoto succeeded as President in 1891, but the new republic has been disturbed by internal troubles. Most serious of these outbreaks was the revolt of the fleet under Admiral Mello in the summer of 1893, followed by the blockade of Rio de Janeiro by the insurgents. To supply the loss of vessels, the Brazilian government purchased a powerful merchantman, *El Cid*, plying between New York and New Orleans, transformed it in New York Harbor into the dynamite cruiser *Nictheroy*, and despatched it at the end of 1893 to the scene of action. Other vessels were purchased to cope with the strong naval force of Mello. The rebellion was not ended until June, 1895. M. de Moraes, who had meanwhile been elected President, granted full amnesty to all concerned in the revolt. In 1896 Brazil entered into a reciprocity treaty for trade with the United States.

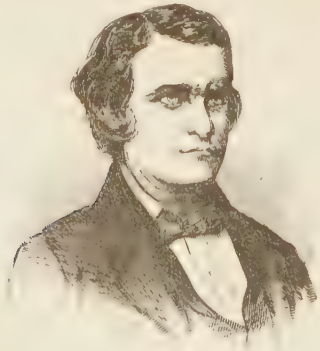
Brazito, BATTLE OF. See BRACETI.

Breakwater, in civil engineering, a con-

struction in deep water to protect an anchorage for vessels during storms and for other purposes. They are technically classified as sloping, composite, and vertical. The most notable breakwater in the United States is at the entrance of Delaware Bay, which cost considerably over $2,000,000. There are others at Galveston, Tex.; at Buffalo, Chicago, and Oswego, on the Great Lakes, and at several ports of entry in the Southern States, which have been constructed by the federal government since the close of the Civil War. The Eads jetties, below New Orleans, are practically a breakwater construction, although built for a different purpose.

Breckenridge, JOHN, statesman; born in Augusta county, Va., Dec. 2, 1760; was admitted to the bar in 1785; elected to Congress in 1793 but did not accept, having determined to remove to Kentucky, where he settled near Lexington. He was appointed attorney-general of Kentucky in 1795. In 1798 he met Jefferson and Nicholas at Monticello and prepared the famous Kentucky resolutions of 1798, of which Jefferson claimed the authorship. In 1801 he was elected to the United States Senate, and resigned in 1805 to become Attorney-General under President Jefferson, which office he filled about four months. He died in Lexington, Ky., Dec. 14, 1806.

Breckinridge, JOHN CABELL, statesman; born near Lexington, Ky., Jan. 21,



JOHN CABELL BRECKINRIDGE.

1821. Studying law at the Transylvania Institute, he began its practice at Lexington. He served as major in the war with Mexico; was a member of his State legislature; and from 1851 to 1855 was in Congress. President Pierce tendered him the mission to Spain, which he declined. In March, 1857, he became Vice-President, under Buchanan, and succeeded John J. Crittenden in the Senate of the United States in 1861. He was then a defeated candidate for the Presidency. His friendship for the Confederates caused his expulsion from the Senate in December, 1861, when he joined the Confederate army and was made a major-general, Aug. 5, 1862. He was active at various points during the remainder of the war. Breckinridge was Secretary of War of the Confederacy when it fell (1865), and soon afterwards departed for Europe, returning to his native State in a short time. He was the youngest man who ever held the office of Vice-President. He died in Lexington, Ky., May 17, 1875.

Breed's Hill. See BUNKER HILL.

Brenton, WILLIAM, royal governor; born in England; was governor of Rhode Island in 1666 under the charter from Charles II., and was one of the original nine proprietors of Rhode Island. Brenton's Point and Brenton's Reef in Narraganset Bay were named after him. He died in Newport, R. I., in 1674.

Bressani, FRANCIS JOSEPH. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Brevard, EPHRAIM, physician; born in Charlotte, N. C., about 1750; was graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1768; was educated for a physician, and practised the profession in Charlotte. He was secretary of the famous Mecklenburg Convention. When the British invaded the Carolinas, he entered the Continental army as a surgeon, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. Broken with disease, he returned to Charlotte after his release, and died about 1783.

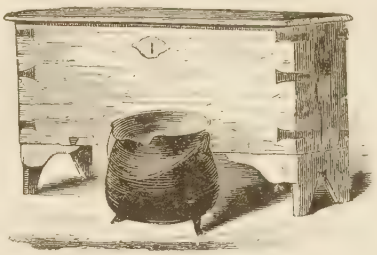
Brevet, a French word implying a royal act, conferring some privilege or distinction; in England it is applied to a commission giving nominal rank higher than that for which pay is received. Thus, a brevet major serves and draws pay as captain. The first time it was used in the United States army was in 1812, when Capt. Zachary Taylor was promoted to major by brevet for his defence of Fort Harrison. It was sometimes used in the Continental army after the arrival of the

French troops in 1780. The word came into very general use during the Civil War, and, as an intermediate distinction between an actual low and a possible higher rank, is still frequently conferred by the President. Officers receiving it are privileged to include it in their official titles, as "Colonel and Brevet Brigadier-General, U. S. A.," or "U. S. V."

Brewer, DAVID JOSIAH, jurist; born in Smyrna, Asia, June 20, 1837; graduated at Yale in 1856; removed to Kansas in 1859; appointed justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1894.

Brewster, BENJAMIN HARRIS, lawyer; born in Salem county, N. J., Oct. 13, 1816; graduated at Princeton College in 1834, and admitted to the Philadelphia bar in 1838; was appointed Attorney-General of the United States in December, 1881, and conducted the prosecution of the Star Route trials. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 4, 1888.

Brewster, WILLIAM, a Pilgrim Father; born in Scrooby, England, in 1560. Educated at Cambridge, he entered the service of William Davidson, ambassador of Queen Elizabeth in Holland. He withdrew from the Church of England and established a society of Separatists. This new society worshipped on Sabbath days at Mr. Brewster's house until persecution began to interrupt them. He, with Mr. Bradford and others, was among those who attempted to fly to Holland in 1607. (See ROBINSON, JOHN.) They were arrested and imprisoned at Boston in Lincolnshire. As Mr. Brewster had the most property, he was the greater sufferer. At much expense he gained his liberty, and then he assisted the poorer members of the church to escape, following them himself soon afterwards. At Leyden he opened a school for teaching the English language, to replenish his exhausted funds, He had then been an elder and teacher for some time. By the assistance of some friends he procured a printing-press, and published several books against the English hierarchy. In Mr. Robinson's church in Leyden Brewster was a ruling elder, and was so highly esteemed that he was chosen the spiritual guide of the "Pilgrims" who emigrated to America. He took with him to the wilderness his wife and numerous children. It was upon the lid of his chest that the political compact was signed on board the *Mayflower*. At New Plymouth he supplied the vacant pulpit most of the time for



ELDER BREWSTER'S CHEST AND DINNER-POT.

nine years, preaching very impressive sermons; but he could never be persuaded to administer the Lord's supper, though he had the care of the church. He died at Plymouth, Mass., April 10, 1644.

Bribery, in the United States, an act prohibited and made punishable by acts of Congress and by legislation in nearly all of the States. The penalties apply equally to the persons offering and accepting a bribe. The acts of Congress apply particularly to persons connected with the government in various capacities, and also to federal elections, and the legislation of a State to public officers generally under its jurisdiction, and also to State and municipal elections. One of the most noted cases of wholesale bribery in the United States was that involving a number of aldermen of New York City, which grew out of a grant of a street railroad franchise in 1884. The legislature ordered an investigation, and several of the aldermen, a former president of the railroad company, and Jacob Sharp, the alleged leader in the bribery, were convicted.

Brice, BENJAMIN W., military officer; born in Virginia in 1809; was graduated at West Point in 1829; served in the expedition against the Sac Indians in 1831, then resigned from the army and became a lawyer, judge, and adjutant-general of Ohio. He re-entered the army as major at the beginning of the Mexican War, and served as paymaster. He served through the Civil War in the pay department; became paymaster-general in 1864, and was

brevetted major-general for faithful services in 1865. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 4, 1892.

Brickett, JAMES, military officer; born in 1737; was a physician in Haverhill, Mass., and a surgeon in the army at Ticonderoga; was wounded in the battle of Bunker Hill; appointed brigadier-general in the expedition designed for Canada in 1776; and commanded the American escort of Burgoyne's surrendered army in 1777. He died in Haverhill, Mass., Dec. 9, 1818.

Bridges. The most notable ones in United States history are:

Arch Bridges.—St. Louis Bridge across the Mississippi at St. Louis, Mo.; three arches formed of tubes of cast-steel, and built out from the piers without scaffolding; the centre span, 520 feet; the others, 502 feet each; built by James B. Eads at a cost of $10,000,000; begun 1867, and completed July 4, 1874. The bridge built to carry the Washington, D. C., aqueduct over Cabin John Creek has the largest masonry arch in the United States; span, 220 feet.

High Bridge, across the Harlem River, in New York City; built to carry the Croton aqueduct across the river. It consists of thirteen arches, and is 1,460 feet long.

Washington Bridge, across the Harlem River, just north of High Bridge; consists of nine arches, three of granite on the east side, four of granite on the west, and two steel arches spanning the river. This bridge is 2,400 feet long and 80 feet wide; completed in 1888.

Suspension Bridges.—Niagara Falls Suspension Bridge, across the gorge, 2 miles below the falls; built by John A. Roebling; length of span between towers, 800 feet; supported by four wire cables, each containing 3,640 No. 9 wires; height of track above the water, 245 feet; carriage-way beneath the track; cost of bridge, $400,000; work begun 1852; first locomotives crossed March 8, 1855.

Cincinnati and Covington Suspension Bridge, over the Ohio River, at an elevation of 91 feet above low-water, and with a span of 1,057 feet; built by Roebling, and completed in 1867.

Clifton Suspension Bridge, at Niagara Falls, a short distance below the falls; built for carriages and foot-passengers; has a span of 1,260 feet; begun 1867; completed in 1869; blown down Jan. 10, 1889, and a new structure of iron, hung on steel cables, opened May 7, 1889.

Brooklyn Bridge, a wire cable suspension bridge connecting New York City with Brooklyn; designed by John A. Roebling, and built by his son, W. A. Roebling; carriage-way, 5,989 feet, and including extensions, 6,537 feet; a central span of 1,595 feet, and two side spans of 930 feet each, with a clear headway under the centre of the bridge of 135 feet above high-water; total height of towers above high-water, 278 feet. There are four suspension cables, composed of 5,296 galvanized steel wires, bound together, but not twisted; width of bridge, 85 feet; cost, $15,000,000; bridge begun 1870; opened May 24, 1883.

New East River Bridge (under construction), connecting New York City with Brooklyn; north of the Brooklyn Bridge. The roadway of this bridge is supported by six steel cables passing over steel towers on each side of the river.

North River Bridge (under construction), across the Hudson, between New York City and Hoboken, N. J. In this bridge the towers are to be of steel, 557 feet high. The central span will be 3,110 feet long, and the lowest point of the bridge 150 feet above high-water.

Cantilever Bridges.—Niagara Falls Cantilever, over the gorge, a short distance above the old suspension bridge; the first true metal cantilever bridge erected, comprising two cantilevers, 385 feet each in length, extending from the shores to piers, and reaching out over the river, supporting a central girder 120 feet in length; distance between piers, 495 feet; height of bridge, 180 feet above the water; opened Dec. 20, 1883.

Kentucky and Indiana Bridge, over the Ohio River, at Louisville; has two cantilever spans of 480 and 483 feet; begun in 1883; completed in 1888.

Poughkeepsie Bridge, crossing the Hudson River at Poughkeepsie; is composed of two cantilever spans on each shore of 523 feet, and a central cantilever span of 521 feet, joined by two ordinary girders of 500 feet span with projecting cantilever ends; work begun 1886; opened in 1888.

Blackwell's Island Bridge (under construction), across the East River north of the Brooklyn Bridge. It has four channel piers, 135 feet above high-water. The bridge will be 2 miles in length, with two channel spans of 846 feet each, and one across Blackwell's Island of 613 feet.

Girder and Miscellaneous Bridges.— Arthur Kill Bridge, between Staten Island and New Jersey, consists of two shore-spans of 150 feet each, covered by fixed trusses, and a draw 500 feet in length; can be opened and closed in two minutes; bridge authorized by act of Congress June 16, 1886; completed at a cost of $450,000, June 13, 1888.

Wooden bridge, over the Connecticut at Hanover, with a single arch of 236 feet; erected in 1796.

Potomac Run Bridge, a famous trestle-work 400 feet long and 80 feet high; built in nine days by soldiers of the Army of the Potomac under the supervision of Gen. Herman Haupt. It contained more than 2,000,000 feet of lumber, chiefly round sticks, fresh cut from the neighboring woods; erected May, 1862.

Portage Bridge, over the Genesee River, on the line of the Erie Railroad at Portage, N. Y. An iron truss bridge on iron trestles, built in 1875, to replace the original wooden trestle bridge; completed Aug. 14, 1852, and burned down, May 6, 1875; total length, 800 feet, comprising one span of 180 feet, two of 100 feet, and seven of 50 feet; height, 130 feet above the river; contract let, May 10, 1875; opened for traffic July 31, 1875.

Wrought-iron girder bridge, at Cincinnati, over the Ohio River, with a span of 519 feet; 105 feet above low-water; built in 1877.

Kentucky River Bridge, a trussed girder bridge of iron, on the line of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad; three spans of 375 feet; built without false work; begun Oct. 16, 1876, and completed at a cost of $404,230, Feb. 20, 1877.

Bridgewater, BATTLE OF. See LUNDY'S LANE.

Brier Creek, BATTLE OF. Colonel Ashe, of North Carolina, was sent by General Lincoln, with 2,000 men, to drive the British from Augusta, Ga., in 1779. The latter fled when Ashe appeared on the opposite side of the river, and pushed towards the sea, led by Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell. Ashe crossed and pursued as far as Brier Creek, 40 miles below Augusta, on the Georgia side of the Savannah River, where he encamped. He was surprised (March 3) and utterly defeated by General Prevost, who was marching up from Savannah to support Campbell. Ashe lost almost his entire army by death, captivity, and dispersion. Some were killed, others perished in the morasses, and many were drowned in attempting to pass the Savannah River. This blow deprived Lincoln of about one-fourth of his army and led to the temporary re-establishment of royal authority in Georgia.

Bright, JESSE D.; born in Norwich, N. Y., Dec. 18, 1812; removed to Indiana in 1820; United States Senator, 1845–62, when he was expelled for having recognized Jefferson Davis as President of the Confederate States. He died in Baltimore, Md., May 20, 1875.

Brinton, DANIEL GARRISON, surgeon and archæologist; born in Thornbury, Pa., May 13, 1837; graduated at Jefferson Medical College in 1861; was appointed medical director in the 11th Army Corps in 1862–65. His writings include *Notes on the Floridian Peninsula; American Hero Myths; Aboriginal American Anthology; Primer of Mayan Hieroglyphics; Religion of Primitive Peoples*, etc. He died in Atlantic City, N. J., July 31, 1899.

Bristow, BENJAMIN HELM, statesman; born in Elkton, Ky., June 20, 1832; was graduated at Jefferson College in 1851; and admitted to the bar of Kentucky in 1853. At the outbreak of the Civil War he accepted a commission in the Union army as lieutenant-colonel of the 25th Kentucky Infantry; afterwards became colonel of the 8th Kentucky Cavalry, and served through the war. He was Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1874–76, when he resigned. He was a leading candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination in 1876. He died in New York, June 22, 1896.

Bristow Station, BATTLE OF. In the third race of the National and Confederate armies for Washington, the struggle to first pass Bristow Station, on the Central Virginia Railroad, was very hot. Lee pushed Hill and Ewell forward to gain that point before the Nationals should

reach it. When they approached it the entire Army of the Potomac had passed it, excepting Gen. G. K. Warren's corps, which was then not in sight of the Confederates. Hill was about to attack the 3d Corps, when, at about noon (Oct. 15), he was startled by the appearance of Warren's troops approaching his rear. They had outstripped Ewell's, and were expecting to meet Sykes's at Bristow Station. Hill instantly turned and opened his batteries upon Warren, who was surprised for a moment; but in the space of ten minutes the batteries of Arnold and Brown, assisted by the infantry divisions of Hayes and Webb, drove back the Confederates and captured six of their guns. These were instantly turned upon the fugitives. A flank attack by the Confederates was repulsed with a loss to them of 450 men made prisoners. This was an effectual check upon Hill's march. Just at sunset Ewell came up, and Warren's corps (5th) was confronted by a greater portion of Lee's army. Seeing his peril, Warren skilfully withdrew under cover of the approaching darkness, and joined the main army in the morning on the heights of Centreville. Warren's loss in the battle was about 200 in killed and wounded.

British Orders in Council. See ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

Brock, SIR ISAAC, military officer; born in Guernsey, Oct. 6, 1769; entered the British army as an ensign in 1783; saw service in Holland, and was in the attack on Copenhagen in 1801. Rising by degrees, he became a major-general, and was appointed president and administrator of the government of Upper Canada, Oct. 9, 1811. When war was declared by the United States, he took prompt measures for the defence of the province. He heard of Hill's invasion from Detroit on July 20, 1812. He knew the weakness of Fort Malden, below Detroit, and felt anxious. The legislature was about to assemble at York (Toronto), and he could not personally conduct affairs in the west. Divided duties perplexed him. Leaving the military which he had gathered along the Niagara frontier in charge of Lieutenant-Colonel Myers, he hastened to York, and, with much parade, opened the session of the legislature. His address was warmly received, but he found that either disloyalty or timidity prevailed in the legislature. Some were decidedly in favor of the Americans, and most of them were lukewarm. Perceiving this, Brock prorogued the Assembly so soon as they had passed the necessary supply bills. But a change soon came. News of the seizure

MONUMENT WHERE GENERAL BROCK FELL.

MEDAL IN MEMORY OF GENERAL BROCK.

of Mackinaw and reverses to the Americans on the Detroit frontier, together with Brock's continually confident tone in public expressions, gave the people courage, and he was enabled to write to Sir George Prevost (July 29, 1812), "The militia stationed here have volunteered their services this morning to any part of the province." He soon led quite a large body of them, and captured DETROIT (*q. v.*). He also personally led the troops in the battle of Queenston, where he was killed, Oct. 13, 1812. The British government caused a fine monument to be erected to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, bearing the following inscription: "Erected at the public expense to the memory of Maj.-Gen. Sir Isaac Brock, who gloriously fell on the 13th of October, MDCCCXII., in resisting an attack on Queenston, Upper Canada." To the four surviving brothers of Brock 12,000 acres of land in Canada were given, and a pension of $1,000 a year each for life. In 1816 the Canadians struck a medal to his memory; and on the Heights of Queenston they raised a beautiful Tuscan column 135 feet in height. In the base of the monument a tomb was formed, in which the general's remains repose. They were taken to this last resting-place from Fort George on Oct. 13, 1824. A small monument marks the place where he fell.

Broderick, DAVIS COLBRETH, legislator; born in Washington, D. C., Feb. 4, 1820; was actively engaged in New York politics until his removal to California in 1846, where he became a leader in political matters. He was elected a United States Senator for that State in 1856. In consequence of political difficulties he was challenged to fight a duel by David S. Terry, chief-justice of the Supreme Court of California; fell at the first fire; and died shortly thereafter, near Lake Merced, Cal., Sept. 16, 1859.

Brodhead, JOHN ROMEYN, historian; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 2, 1814. He graduated at Rutgers College in 1831; admitted to the bar in 1835; was attached to the American legation at the Hague in 1839, and was appointed by the legislature of New York its agent to procure and transcribe original documents concerning the history of the State. He spent three years in searching the archives of Holland, England, and France, and obtained copies of more than 5,000 separate papers, comprising the reports of home and colonial authorities. They have been published in 11 quarto volumes by the State of New York, edited by E. B. O'Callaghan, LL.D. Mr. Brodhead was secretary of the American legation in London from 1846 till 1849. On his return he began the preparation of a *History of the State of New York.* The first volume was published in 1853, and the second in 1871. He was naval officer of New York from 1853 till 1857. Mr. Brodhead left his *History of the State of New York* unfinished. He died in New York City, May 6, 1873.

Broke, SIR PHILIP BOWES VERE, an English admiral; born Sept. 9, 1776; entered the British navy in 1792, and became post-captain in 1801. His most conspicuous exploit was his capture of the American frigate *Chesapeake* in June, 1813. (See CHESAPEAKE and SHANNON.) This affair caused him to receive knighthood; and at the time of his death he held the commission of rear-admiral of the Red. In the action with the *Chesapeake* he was so badly wounded that he was never fit for service afterwards. He died in London, Jan. 2, 1841.

SIR PHILIP BOWES VERE BROKE.

Brook Farm Association. The Brook Farm project originated with George Ripley, a prominent humanitarian of Boston, and Dr. William H. Channing. The original plan was to make of it a religious and literary community, supported by joint labor of its members on a farm which was the common property of all. All were to live simply, and, as the hours of labor were brief, abundant leisure was to be secured for social and intellectual intercourse. All the members of the community were to be stockholders in the community's property, some giving money and others contributing labor as an equivalent. Many persons of note in the literary world were members of the association, including Theodore Parker, George William Curtis, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Charles A. Dana, Elizabeth P. Peabody, Margaret Fuller, and others. The association was organized in 1841, the farm purchased, and by the following spring its plan was fairly in working order. It was then known simply as the West Roxbury Community, Brook Farm being the name of the place owned by the society. A quarterly journal called the *Dial* was carried on by the members of the society. In December, 1843, a convention of reformers of various grades was held in Boston, to discuss the ideas of Fourier, which had just become known in this country. The result was the conversion of all the Brook Farmers to Fourierism, and the transformation of their simple community into a Fourierist "phalanx," under the name of the Brook Farm Association. The leaders of this movement were George Ripley, Minot Pratt, and Charles A. Dana. The land owned by the association at this time aggregated 208 acres, situated at West Roxbury, 8 miles from Boston, and their property, real and personal, was estimated at $30,000. In the summer of 1844 the *Dial* suspended publication. The new organ of the association was the *Phalanx*, then published in New York, afterwards removed to Boston, where its name was changed to the *Harbinger*. The Brook Farm Association was incorporated by the Massachusetts legislature in the winter of 1844–45, under the name of "The Brook Farm Phalanx." From this time the main function of Brook Farm was propagandism. It continued the management of the communal affairs at West Roxbury, and made many improvements there, and put up large workshops and other buildings. But outside of this work its members conducted the *Harbinger*, which was published weekly and was given up almost wholly to advocacy of Fourierism. It also instituted a missionary society and a lecturing system. Its members, with some outside sympathizers, formed an organization, the American Union of Associationists, the two foremost workers in which were William H. Channing and Charles A. Dana, and eloquent appeals in the form of circulars were sent out, urging the formation of similar societies all over the country. A number of these were formed, but, unfortunately, nearly all were failures. March 3, 1846, the large "phalanstery," in process of erection at Brook Farm, was burned. This was a terrible blow to the society, and one from which it never recovered. The organization lingered and continued the publication of the *Harbinger* till October, 1847, but the hope of becoming a model "phalanx" died out long before that time. The associate life was broken up in 1847, and the Brook Farmers sought other fields of labor. The end of Brook Farm was virtually the end of Fourierism in the United States, for though other organizations of a similar character had been formed after its example, their lives were of short duration, when the inspiration of the Roxbury apostles was gone.

Brooke, JOHN RUTTER, military officer; born in Pottsville, Pa., July 21, 1838. When the Civil War began he joined the Union army as a captain of a volunteer regiment, and resigned from the volunteer army with the rank of brevet major-general in 1866. He was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 37th United States Infantry in July, 1866; and promoted to colonel in 1879, brigadier-general in 1888, and major-general in 1897. In 1898, on the declaration of war against Spain, he was appointed commander of the 1st Provisional Army Corps. After serving in the Porto Rico campaign, he was appointed a member of the joint military commission to arrange the cession of that island to the United States. He was military and civil governor of Cuba from December, 1898, till April, 1900; was then succeeded

by Gen. Leonard Wood; and on May 10, 1900, succeeded Maj.-Gen. Wesley Merritt as commander of the Military Department of the East, with headquarters in New York City.

Brooklyn, a former city and county seat of Kings county, N. Y., at the west end of Long Island; since Jan. 1, 1898, one of the five boroughs of the city of New York. Under the census of 1890 it was the fourth city in population in the United States—806,343; under that of 1900 the borough had a population of 1,166,582. In 1900 the area was 66.39 square miles; assessed valuation of taxable property, $695,335,940; and net debt, $70,005,384. The borough derived its name from Breuckelen ("marshy land"), a place in the province of Utrecht, Holland. The first movement towards settlement there was the purchase of land from the Indians, in 1636, lying at Gowanus, and of land at Wallabout Bay, in 1637. A ferry between it and New Amsterdam was established in 1642. It held a leading position among the towns for wealth and population at the time of the surrender to the English. At or near Brooklyn occurred the battle of Long Island (see LONG ISLAND, BATTLE OF), in 1776. The government established a navy-yard in Brooklyn in 1801. During the War of 1812–15 (August, 1814), there were stirring scenes at Brooklyn, when hosts of citizens went over from New York to assist in strengthening the old fortifications there, in expectation of an attack by the British. In the Civil War the citizens of Brooklyn contributed largely to the support of the Union cause in every way. The fair held here for the benefit of the United States Sanitary Commission yielded the sum of $402,943. Brooklyn was incorporated a village in April, 1816, and became a chartered city in 1834. Williamsburg and Greenpoint were annexed to it in 1855; the towns of Flatbush, New Utrecht, and Gravesend, in 1894; and the town of Flatlands became a ward of the city in 1896.

The bridge across the East River, connecting New York and Brooklyn, was designed by JOHN A. ROEBLING (*q. v.*). It was begun in 1870 and finished in 1883. The 15½-in. steel cables by which it is suspended were made at Trenton, N. J., and are supported on stone piers, 272 feet above high tide. The total length of the bridge is 5,989 feet, and the carriage-way is 135 feet above the water. The cost was $15,000,000, of which the city of Brooklyn paid $10,000,000 and New York city $5,000,000. The bridge now accommodates pedestrians, carriages and wagons, bridge cable-cars,

THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

and electric cars. The bridge soon proved inadequate for the enormous traffic between New York and Brooklyn, and a second and larger bridge on steel piers was built about a mile above, and a third bridge ordered to parallel the original, and a fourth bridge across Blackwell's Island. In addition a tunnel has been authorized under the East River from the Battery in New York to the Brooklyn City Hall.

Brooks, JAMES, journalist; born in Portland, Me., Nov. 10, 1810; became a Washington correspondent of the Portland *Advertiser* in 1832; established the *Express* in New York City in 1832; was a member of the New York State constitutional convention; a government director of the Union Pacific Railway; and one of the members of the House of Representatives censured for his connection with the Crédit Mobilier. He died in Washington, D. C., April 30, 1873. See CRÉDIT MOBILIER.

Brooks, JOHN, soldier and statesman; born in Medford, Mass., May 31, 1752; received a common-school education, studied medicine, and settled in its practice at Reading, where he commanded a company of minute-men when the Revolution began. With his men he was engaged in the affairs of April 19, 1775, at Lexington and Concord. Brooks was active in intrenching Breed's Hill (see BUNKER HILL) on the night of June 16, 1775, and was major of a regiment that assisted in fortifying Dorchester Heights. Early in 1776 he accompanied it to Long Island, and fought there. The battle of White Plains tested his capacity as a disciplinarian and leader; and early in 1777 he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel of the 8th Massachusetts Regiment, which was chiefly recruited by himself. He became colonel of the 7th Massachusetts Regiment late in 1778; and he accompanied Arnold on his expedition to relieve Fort Stanwix in 1777. He led his regiment in battle with great prowess and success at Saratoga, Oct. 7, 1777; and in the battle of MONMOUTH (*q. v.*) he was acting adjutant-general. He was adjutant-general of Massachusetts during the War of 1812–15; and was governor of that commonwealth from 1816 to 1823, when he retired to private life. In 1816 Harvard University conferred upon him the degrees of M.D. and LL.D. From 1817 until his death, March 1, 1825, he was president of

JOHN BROOKS.
(From an old lithograph.)

the Massachusetts Medical Society; of the State Society of the Cincinnati from 1787; and of the Massachusetts Bible Society.

Brooks, PHILLIPS; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 13, 1835; graduated at Harvard in 1855; rector of Trinity Church, Boston, 1869; bishop of Massachusetts, 1891. He wrote many books on religious subjects. He died in Boston, Jan. 23, 1893.

Brooks, PRESTON SMITH, legislator; born in Edgefield District, S. C., Aug. 4, 1819; was graduated at the South Carolina College in 1839; admitted to the bar in 1843; and elected to the State legislature in the following year. He served with the South Carolina Palmetto Regiment through the Mexican War, and afterwards engaged in planting. He was elected to Congress as a State-Rights Democrat in 1853, and held his seat till his death, in Washington, D. C., Jan. 27, 1857. On May 22, 1856, he made a murderous assault on Charles Sumner, who had remained in his seat in the Senate Chamber attending to some unfinished business after the adjournment of the Senate for the day. Mr. Sumner became insensible from the attack, and is said to have suffered more or less from it till his death. When the fact of the assault became known, the House of Representatives directed an investigation, and its committee reported in favor of expelling Mr. Brooks. Subsequently, however, when the resolution came

up for final action it was defeated through lack of the required two-thirds vote. Soon afterwards Representative ANSON BURLINGAME (*q. v.*), of Massachusetts, challenged Mr. Brooks to fight a duel in consequence of words used in a debate in the House, but Mr. Brooks failed to appear at the designated time and place in Canada. After the assault Mr. Brooks resigned his seat in the House, but his constituents immediately re-elected him, and he was presented with numerous tokens of esteem by friends in different parts of the South.

His Defence of the Assault.—On July 14, 1856, Mr. Brooks delivered the following speech:

———

Mr. Speaker,—Some time since a Senator from Massachusetts allowed himself, in an elaborately prepared speech, to offer a gross insult to my State, and to a venerable friend, who is my State representative, and who was absent at the time.

Not content with that, he published to the world, and circulated extensively, this uncalled-for libel on my State and my blood. Whatever insults my State insults me. Her history and character have commanded my pious veneration; and in her defence I hope I shall always be prepared, humbly and modestly, to perform the duty of a son. I should have forfeited my own self-respect, and perhaps the good opinion of my countrymen, if I had failed to resent such an injury by calling the offender in question to a personal account. It was a personal affair, and in taking redress into my own hands I meant no disrespect to the Senate of the United States or to this House. Neither did I design insult or disrespect to the State of Massachusetts. I was aware of the personal responsibilities I incurred, and was willing to meet them. I knew, too, that I was amenable to the laws of the country, which afford the same protection to all, whether they be members of Congress or private citizens. I did not, and do not now, believe that I could be properly punished, not only in a court of law, but here also, at the pleasure and discretion of the House. I did not then, and do not now, believe that the spirit of American freemen would tolerate slander in high places, and permit a member of Congress to publish and circulate a libel on another, and then call upon either House to protect him against the personal responsibilities which he had thus incurred.

But if I had committed a breach of privilege, it was the privilege of the Senate, and not of this House, which was violated. I was answerable *there*, and not *here*. They had no right, as it seems to me, to prosecute me in these halls, nor have you the right in law or under the Constitution, as I respectfully submit, to take jurisdiction over offences committed against them. The Constitution does not justify them in making such a request, nor this House in granting it. If, unhappily, the day should ever come when sectional or party feeling should run so high as to control all other considerations of public duty or justice, how easy it will be to use such precedents for the excuse of arbitrary power, in either House, to expel members of the minority who may have rendered themselves obnoxious to the prevailing spirit in the House to which they belong.

Matters may go smoothly enough when one House asks the other to punish a member who is offensive to a majority of its own body; but how will it be when, upon a pretence of insulted dignity, *demands* are made of this House to expel a member who happens to run counter to its party predilections, or other demands which it may not be so agreeable to grant? It could never have been designed by the Constitution of the United States to expose the two Houses to such temptations to collision, or to extend so far the discretionary power which was given to either House to punish its own members for the violation of its rules and orders. Discretion has been said to be the law of the tyrant, and when exercised under the color of the law, and under the influence of party dictation, it may and will become a terrible and insufferable despotism.

This House, however, it would seem, from the unmistakable tendency of its proceedings, takes a different view from that which I deliberately entertain in common with many others.

So far as public interests or constitu-

tional rights are involved, I have now exhausted my means of defence. I may, then, be allowed to take a more personal view of the question at issue. The further prosecution of this subject, in the shape it has now assumed, may not only involve my friends, but the House itself, in agitations which might be unhappy in their consequences to the country. If these consequences could be confined to myself individually, I think I am prepared and ready to meet them, here or elsewhere; and when I use this language I mean what I say. But others must not suffer for me. I have felt more on account of my two friends who have been implicated than for myself, for they have proven that "there is a friend that sticketh closer than a brother." I will not constrain gentlemen to assume a responsibility on my account, which possibly they would not run on their own.

Sir, I cannot, on *my own account*, assume the responsibility, in the face of the American people, of commencing a line of conduct which in my heart of hearts I believe would result in subverting the foundations of this government, and in drenching this hall in blood. No act of mine, on my personal account, shall inaugurate revolution; but when you, Mr. Speaker, return to your own home, and hear the people of the great North—and they are a great people—speak of me as a bad man, you will do me the justice to say that a blow struck by me at this time would be followed by revolution, and this I know. (Applause and hisses in the gallery.)

Mr. Brooks (resuming):—If I desired to kill the Senator, why did not I do it? You all admit that I had him in my power. Let me tell the member from New Jersey that it was expressly to avoid taking life that I used an ordinary cane, presented to me by a friend in Baltimore, nearly three months before its application to the "bare head" of the Massachusetts Senator. I went to work very deliberately, as I am charged—and this is admitted—and speculated somewhat as to whether I should employ a horsewhip or a cowhide; but knowing that the Senator was my superior in strength, it occurred to me that he might wrest it from my hand, and then—for I never attempt anything I do not perform—I might have been compelled to do that which I would have regretted the balance of my natural life.

The question has been asked in certain newspapers, why I did not invite the Senator to personal combat in the mode usually adopted. Well, sir, as I desire the whole truth to be known about the matter, I will for once notice a newspaper article on the floor of the House, and answer here.

My answer is, that the Senator would not accept a message; and having formed the unalterable determination to punish him, I believe that the offence of "sending a hostile message," superadded to the indictment for assault and battery, would subject me to legal penalties more severe than would be imposed for a simple assault and battery. That is my answer.

Now, Mr. Speaker, I have nearly finished what I intended to say. If my opponents, who have pursued me with unparalleled bitterness, are satisfied with the present condition of this affair, I am. I return my thanks to my friends, and especially to those who are from non-slave-owning States, who have magnanimously sustained me, and felt that it was a higher honor to themselves to be just in their judgment of a gentleman than to be a member of Congress for life. In taking my leave, I feel that it is proper that I should say that I believe that some of the votes that have been cast against me have been extorted by an outside pressure at home, and that their votes do not express the feelings or opinions of the members who gave them.

To such of these as have given their votes and made their speeches on the constitutional principles involved, and without indulging in personal vilification, I owe my respect. But, sir, they have written me down upon the history of the country as worthy of expulsion, and in no unkindness I must tell them that for all future time my self-respect requires that I shall pass them as strangers.

And now, Mr. Speaker, I announce to you and to this House, that I am no longer a member of the thirty-fourth Congress.

Mr. Brooks then withdrew from the chamber.

Brooks, WILLIAM THOMAS HARBAUGH, military officer; born in New Lisbon, O., Jan. 28, 1821; graduated at West Point in 1841; served under Scott in the war against Mexico, and became brigadier-general of volunteers in 1861, serving in the Army of the Potomac. In July, 1864, he was temporarily in command of the 10th Army Corps, and resigned the same month. He died in Huntsville, Ala., July 19, 1870.

Brother Jonathan. See TRUMBULL, JONATHAN.

Brotherly Love, CITY OF. See PHILADELPHIA.

Brough, JOHN, journalist; born in Marietta, O., in 1811; learned the printer's trade in the office of the Marietta *Gazette;* and was editor of Democratic newspapers in Lancaster and Cincinnati. He held several State offices in Ohio; was a member of the joint commission to adjust the boundary line between that State and Virginia; became a popular Democratic orator; was an active "war" Democrat in the early part of the Civil War; and was elected governor of Ohio as the Republic-Union candidate in 1863. He died in Cleveland, O., Aug. 29, 1865.

Brown, AARON VAIL; born in Virginia, Aug. 15, 1795; removed to Tennessee in 1815; was member of the State legislature for some years, and elected to Congress in 1839, and governor of the State in 1845. He was Postmaster-General in Buchanan's cabinet. He died in Washington, March 8, 1859.

Brown, BENJAMIN GRATZ; born in Lexington, Ky., May 28, 1826; graduated at Yale in 1847; and settled in St. Louis, where he edited the *Missouri Democrat.* He assisted in preventing the secession of Missouri, and was elected to the United States Senate in 1863, and governor of the State in 1871. He was the candidate for Vice-President on the Greeley ticket in 1872. He died in St. Louis, Dec. 13, 1885.

Brown, CHARLES BROCKDEN, author; born in Philadelphia, Jan. 17, 1771; studied law, but abandoned it for literature. In addition to novels and works of literature he published *An Address to Franklin; An Address to Congress on Foreign Commerce.* He was the first American author who made literature his profession. He died in Philadelphia, Feb. 22, 1810.

Brown, FORT, a fortified post on the Rio Grande, erected in 1846, and named in honor of Maj. Jacob Brown, U. S. A. It was built by General Taylor immediately after his arrival at the river opposite Matamoras with a part of the army of occupation (March 29, 1846), and was designed to accommodate 2,000 men. It was placed in command of Major Brown. Taylor was ordered by General Ampudia, commander of the Mexican forces at Matamoras, to withdraw within twenty-four hours, as he claimed the territory around Fort Brown belonged to the Department of Tamaulipas, a part of Mexico. Taylor refused to do so; and when he had gone back to Point Isabel with a part of his forces, leaving Major Brown in command, Arista crossed the river with some troops to attack the fort. His army was hourly increasing in strength. On the night of May 4 the Mexicans erected a battery behind the fort, and early the next morning opened a heavy fire from it upon the fortification. At the same time the batteries at Matamoras, which had fired upon the fort on the 3d, hurled shot and shell, but with little effect, for Brown had erected bomb-proof shelter. Almost at the beginning of the bombardment, the gallant commander was killed. The bombardment continued thirty-six hours, when Arista demanded a surrender of the fort. It was refused, and towards evening (April 6) a heavy tempest of shot and shell fell upon the fort. The fort withstood the attack until relieved by approaching troops under General Taylor. See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

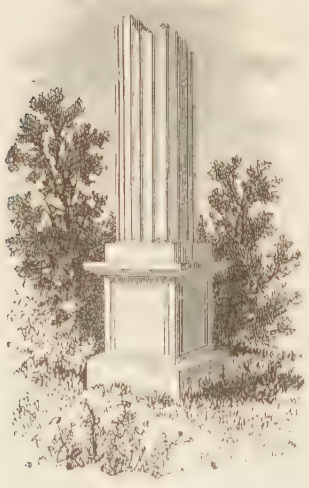
Brown, HENRY BILLINGS, jurist; born in Lee, Mass., March 2, 1836; graduated at Yale in 1856; circuit judge of Wayne county, Mich., in 1868; United States district judge in 1875; justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1890.

Brown, HENRY KIRKE, sculptor; born in Leyden, Mass., Feb. 24, 1814. Among his best works are an equestrian statue of Washington, in New York; an equestrian statue of General Greene; a colossal statue of De Witt Clinton; and *Angel of the Resurrection,* in Greenwood Cemetery; a colossal equestrian statue of General Scott, and a statue of President Lincoln. He died in Newburg, N. Y., July 10, 1886.

Brown, ISAAC U., naval officer; commanded the ram ARKANSAS (*q. v.*).

Brown, Jacob, military officer; born in Bucks county, Pa., May 9, 1775, of Quaker parentage. He taught school at Crosswicks, N. J., for three years, and passed two years in surveying lands in Ohio. In 1798 he opened a select school in the city of New York, and studied law. Some of his newspaper essays attracted the notice of Gen. Alexander Hamilton, to whom he became secretary while that officer was acting general-in-chief of the army raised to fight the French. On leaving that service he went to northern New York, purchased lands on the banks of the Black River, not many miles from Sackett's Harbor, and founded the flourishing settlement of Brownsville, where he erected the first building within 30 miles of Lake Ontario. There he became county judge; colonel of the militia in 1809; brigadier-general in 1810; and, in 1812, received the appointment of commander of the frontier from Oswego to Lake St. Francis, a line 200 miles in extent. He performed excellent service on that frontier and that of the Niagara during the War of 1812–15, receiving two severe wounds in battle. For his services he received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. At the close of the war, General Brown was retained in command of the northern division of the army, and was made general-in-chief of the army of the United States, March 10, 1821. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 24, 1828. General Brown's remains were interred in the congressional burying-ground, and over them is a truncated column of white marble upon an inscribed pedestal. See Freedom of a City.

MEDAL PRESENTED TO GENERAL BROWN BY CONGRESS.



GENERAL BROWN'S MONUMENT.

Brown, John, patriot; born in Sandisfield, Mass., Oct. 19, 1744; was graduated at Yale College in 1761; became a lawyer and active patriot; entered Canada in disguise (1774–75) to obtain information and secure the co-operation of the Canadians with the other colonists, and

aided Ethan Allen in the capture of Ticonderoga. He was active with Montgomery in the siege of Quebec. In August, 1776, he was made lieutenant-colonel, and, on the morning of Sept. 18, 1776, he surprised the outposts of Ticonderoga, set free 100 American prisoners, captured four companies of British regulars, a quantity of stores and cannon, and destroyed a number of boats and an armed sloop. He left the service because of his detestation of Benedict Arnold, but continued to act with the militia. He was killed by Indians in the Mohawk Valley, Oct. 19, 1780.

BROWN, JOHN

Brown, JOHN, abolitionist; born in Torrington, Conn., May 9, 1800; hanged in Charlestown, Va., Dec. 2, 1859; was a descendant of Peter Brown of the *Mayflower*. His grandfather was a soldier of the Revolution, and perished in that war. When John was five years of age, his father moved to Ohio; and in 1815–20 he worked at the trade of a tanner. He became a dealer in wool; visited Europe on business; and in 1855 he emigrated to Kansas, where, as an anti-slavery champion, he took an active part against the pro-slavery party, engaging in some of the conflicts of the short civil war in that Territory. Devout, moral, courageous, and intensely earnest, he sought to be an instrument for the abolition of African slavery from the republic. The idea that he might become a liberator was conceived so early as 1839. In May, 1859, he made his first movement in an attempt to liberate the slaves in Virginia, which ended so disastrously to himself at Harper's Ferry.

There seemed to be a peculiar serenity and calmness in the public mind about public affairs in the fall of 1859, when suddenly a rumor went out of Baltimore that the abolitionists had seized the government armory and arsenal at Harper's Ferry, at the junction of the Shenandoah and Potomac rivers, and that a general insurrection of the slaves in Virginia was imminent. The rumor was mostly true. John Brown had suddenly appeared at Harper's Ferry with a few followers, to induce the slaves of Virginia to rise in insurrection and assert their right to freedom. With a few white followers and twelve slaves from Missouri, he went into Canada West, and at Chatham a convention of sympathizers was held in May, 1859, whereat a "Provisional Constitution and Ordinances for the People of the United States" was adopted—not, as the instrument declared, "for the overthrow of any government, but simply to amend and repeal." It was a part of the scheme for promoting the uprising of the slaves.

Brown spent the summer of 1859 in preparations for his work. He hired a farm a few miles from Harper's Ferry, where he was known by the name of Smith. One by one his followers joined him there, and stealthily gathered pikes and other weapons, with ammunition, for the purpose of first arming the insurgent slaves of Virginia. On a very dark night, Brown, with seventeen white men and five negroes, stole into the village of Harper's Ferry, put out the street-lights, seized the government armory and the railway-bridge there, and quietly arrested and imprisoned in the government buildings every citizen found in the street at the earlier hours of the next morning, each one ignorant of what else had happened. These invaders

JOHN BROWN.

had seized Colonel Washington, living a few miles from the ferry, with his arms and horses, and liberated his slaves; and at eight o'clock on Monday morning, Oct. 17, Brown and his followers (among whom were two of his sons) had full possession of the village and the government works. He had felt assured that when the first blow should be struck the negroes of the surrounding country would rise and flock to his standard, that a general uprising of the slaves throughout the Union would follow, and that he would win the satisfaction and the honors of a great liberator. When asked what was his purpose, and by what authority he acted, he replied, "To free the slaves; and by the authority of God Almighty."

News of this affair went swiftly abroad, and before night a large number of Virginia militia had gathered at Harper's Ferry. Struggles between these and Brown's followers ensued, in which the two sons of the latter perished. The invaders were finally driven into a fire-engine house, where Brown bravely defended himself. With one son dead by his side and the other shot through the body, he felt the pulse of his dying child with one hand, held his rifle with the other, and issued oral commands to his men with all the composure of a general in his marquee, telling them to be firm, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. They held their citadel until Monday evening, when Col. Robert E. Lee arrived with ninety United States marines and two pieces of artillery. The doors of the engine-house were forced open, and Brown and his followers were captured. The bold leader was speedily tried for murder and treason, was found guilty (Oct. 29), and on Dec. 3, 1859, was hanged. Meanwhile the wildest tales of the raid had gone over the land. The governor of Virginia (Henry A. Wise) was beside himself with excitement, and declared himself ready to make war on all the free-labor States; and he declared, in a letter to the President (Nov. 25), that he had authority for the belief that a conspiracy to rescue Brown existed in Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and other States. Attempts were made to implicate leading Republicans in a scheme for liberating the slaves. A committee of the United States Senate, with James M. Mason, author of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850, as its chairman, was appointed to investigate the subject. The result was the obtaining of positive proof that Brown had no accomplices, and only about twenty-five followers. Although Brown's mad attempt to free the slaves was a total failure, it proved to be one of the important events which speedily brought about the result he so much desired.

Autobiographical Notes.—

BROWN'S LETTER ON SLAVERY TO HIS BROTHER FREDERICK.

RANDOLPH, PA., *Nov. 21, 1834.*

DEAR BROTHER,—As I have had only one letter from Hudson since you left here, and that some weeks since, I begin to get uneasy and apprehensive that all is not well. I had satisfied my mind about it for some time, in expectation of seeing father here, but I begin to give that up for the present. Since you left me I have been trying to devise some means whereby I might do something in a practical way for my poor fellow-men who are in bondage, and having fully consulted the feelings of my wife and my three boys, we have agreed to get at least one negro boy or youth, and bring him up as we do our own—*viz.*, give him a good English education, learn him what we can about the history of the world, about business, about general subjects, and, above all, try to teach him the fear of God. We think of three ways to obtain one: First, to try to get some Christian slave-holder to release one to us. Second, to get a free one if no one will let us have one that is a slave. Third, if that does not succeed, we have all agreed to submit to considerable privation in order to buy one. This we are now using means in order to effect, in the confident expectation that God is about to bring them all out of the house of bondage.

I will just mention that when this subject was first introduced, Jason had gone to bed; but no sooner did he hear the thing hinted, than his warm heart kindled, and he turned out to have a part in the discussion of a subject of such exceeding interest. I have for years been trying to devise some way to get a school a-going here for blacks, and I think that

on many accounts it would be a most favorable location. Children here would have no intercourse with vicious people of their own kind, nor with openly vicious persons of any kind. There would be no powerful opposition influence against such a thing; and should there be any, I believe the settlement might be so effected in future as to have almost the whole influence of the place in favor of such a school. Write me how you would like to join me, and try to get on from Hudson and thereabouts some first-rate abolitionist families with you. I do honestly believe that our united exertions alone might soon, with the good hand of our God upon us, effect it all.

This has been with me a favorite theme of reflection for years. I think that a place which might be in some measure settled with a view to such an object would be much more favorable to such an undertaking than would any such place as Hudson, with all its conflicting interests and feelings; and I do think such advantages ought to be afforded the young blacks, whether they are all to be immediately set free or not. Perhaps we might, under God, in that way do more towards breaking their yoke effectually than in any other. If the young blacks of our country could once become enlightened, it would most assuredly operate on slavery like firing powder confined in rock, and all slave-holders know it well. Witness their heaven-daring laws against teaching blacks. If once the Christians in the free States would set to work in earnest in teaching the blacks, the people of the slave-holding States would find themselves constitutionally driven to set about the work of emancipation immediately. The laws of this State are now such that the inhabitants of any township may raise by a tax in aid of the State school-fund any amount of money they may choose by a vote, for the purpose of common schools, which any child may have access to by application. If you will join me in this undertaking, I will make with you any arrangement of our temporal concerns that shall be fair. Our health is good, and our prospects about business rather brightening.

Affectionately yours,

JOHN BROWN.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE "GILEADITES," AN ORGANIZATION OF COLORED PEOPLE.

Nothing so charms the American people as personal bravery. Witness the case of Cinques, of everlasting memory, on board the *Amistad*. The trial for life of one bold and to some extent successful man, for defending his rights in good earnest, would arouse more sympathy throughout the nation than the accumulated wrongs and sufferings of more than three millions of our submissive colored population. We need not mention the Greeks struggling against the oppressive Turks, the Poles against Russia, nor the Hungarians against Austria and Russia combined, to prove this. *No jury can be found in the Northern States that would convict a man for defending his rights to the last extremity. This is well understood by Southern Congressmen, who insisted that the right of trial by jury should not be granted to the fugitive.* Colored people have ten times the number of fast friends among the whites than they suppose, and would have ten times the number they now have were they but half as much in earnest to secure their dearest rights as they are to ape the follies and extravagances of their white neighbors, and to indulge in idle show, in ease, and in luxury. Just think of the money expended by individuals in your behalf in the past twenty years! Think of the number who have been mobbed and imprisoned on your account! Have any of you seen the Branded Hand? Do you remember the names of Lovejoy and Torrey?

Should one of your number be arrested, you must collect together as quickly as possible, so as to outnumber your adversaries who are taking an active part against you. Let no able-bodied man appear on the ground unequipped, or with his weapons exposed to view: let that be understood beforehand. Your plans must be known only to yourself, and with the understanding that all traitors must die, wherever caught and proven to be guilty. "Whosoever is fearful or afraid, let him return and depart early from Mount Gilead" (Judges, vii. 3; Deut. xx. 8). Give all cowards an opportunity to show it on condition of holding their peace. *Do not delay one moment after you are*

ready: you will lose all your resolution if you do. Let the first blow be the signal for all to engage; and when engaged do not do your work by halves, but make clean work with your enemies,—and be sure you meddle not with any others. By going about your business quietly, you will get the job disposed of before the number that an uproar would bring together can collect; and you will have the advantage of those who come out against you, for they will be wholly unprepared with either equipments or matured plans; all with them will be confusion and terror. Your enemies will be slow to attack you after you have done up the work nicely; and if they should, they will have to encounter your white friends as well as you; for you may safely calculate on a division of the whites, and may by that means get to an honorable parley.

Be firm, determined, and cool; but let it be understood that you are not to be driven to desperation without making it an awful dear job to others as well as to you. Give them to know distinctly that those who live in wooden houses should not throw fire, and that you are just as able to suffer as your white neighbors. *After effecting a rescue, if you are assailed, go into the houses of your most prominent and influential white friends with your wives; and that will effectually fasten upon them the suspicion of being connected with you, and will compel them to make a common cause with you, whether they would otherwise live up to their profession or not. This would leave them no choice in the matter.* Some would doubtless prove themselves true of their own choice; others would flinch; That would be taking them at their own words. You may make a tumult in the court-room where a trial is going on, by burning gunpowder freely in paper packages, if you cannot think of any better way to create a momentary alarm, and might possibly give one or more of your enemies a hoist. But in such case the prisoner will need to take the hint at once, and bestir himself; and so should his friends improve the opportunity for a general rush.

A lasso might probably be applied to a slave-catcher for once with good effect. Hold on to your weapons, and never be persuaded to leave them, part with them, or have them far away from you. *Stand by one another and by your friends, while a drop of blood remains; and be hanged, if you must, but tell no tales out of school. Make no confession.*

Union is strength. Without some well-digested arrangements nothing to any good purpose is likely to be done, let the demand be never so great. Witness the case of Hamlet and Long in New York, when there was no well-defined plan of operations or suitable preparation beforehand.

The desired end may be effectually secured by the means proposed; namely, the enjoyment of our inalienable rights.

THE FIGHT OF OSAWATOMIE.

Early in the morning of Aug. 30 the enemy's scouts approached to within one mile and a half of the western boundary of the town of Osawatomie. At this place my son Frederick (who was not attached to my force) had lodged, with some four other young men from Lawrence, and a young man named Garrison, from Middle Creek. The scouts, led by a pro-slavery preacher named White, shot my son dead in the road, while he—as I have since ascertained—supposed them to be friendly. At the same time they butchered Mr. Garrison, and badly mangled one of the young men from Lawrence, who came with my son, leaving him for dead. This was not far from sunrise. I had stopped during the night about two and one-half miles from them, and nearly one mile from Osawatomie. I had no organized force, but only some twelve or fifteen new recruits, who were ordered to leave their preparations for breakfast and follow me into the town, as soon as this news was brought to me.

As I had no means of learning correctly the force of the enemy, I placed twelve of the recruits in a log-house, hoping we might be able to defend the town. I then gathered some fifteen more men together, whom we armed with guns; and we started in the direction of the enemy. After going a few rods, we could see them approaching the town in line of battle, about half a mile off, upon a hill west of the village. I then gave up all idea of doing more than to annoy, from the timber near the town, into which we were all retreat-

ed, and which was filled with a thick growth of underbrush; but I had no time to recall the twelve men in the log-house, and so lost their assistance in the fight. At the point above named I met with Captain Cline, a very active young man, who had with him some twelve or fifteen mounted men, and persuaded him to go with us into the timber, on the southern shore of the Osage, or Marais des Cygnes, a little to the northwest from the village. Here the men, numbering not more than thirty in all, were directed to scatter and secrete themselves as well as they could, and await the approach of the enemy. This was done in full view of them (who must have seen the whole movement), and had to be done in the utmost haste. I believe Captain Cline and some of his men were not even dismounted in the fight, but cannot assert positively. When the left wing of the enemy had approached to within common rifle-shot, we commenced firing, and very soon threw the northern branch of the enemy's line into disorder. This continued some fifteen or twenty minutes, which gave us an uncommon opportunity to annoy them. Captain Cline and his men soon got out of ammunition, and retired across the river.

After the enemy rallied, we kept up our fire, until, by the leaving of one and another, we had but six or seven left. We then retired across the river. We had one man killed—a Mr. Powers, from Captain Cline's company—in the fight. One of my men, a Mr. Partridge, was shot in crossing the river. Two or three of the party who took part in the fight are yet missing, and may be lost or taken prisoners. Two were wounded; namely, Dr. Updegraff and a Mr. Collis. I cannot speak in too high terms of them, and of many others I have not now time to mention.

One of my best men, together with myself, was struck by a partially spent ball from the enemy, in the commencement of the fight, but we were only bruised. The loss I refer to is one of my missing men. The loss of the enemy, as we learn by the different statements of our own as well as other people, was some thirty-one or two killed, and from forty to fifty wounded. After burning the town to ashes and killing a Mr. Williams they had taken, whom neither party claimed, they took a hasty leave, carrying their dead and wounded with them. They did not attempt to cross the river, nor to search for us, and have not since returned to look over their work.

I give this in great haste, in the midst of constant interruptions. My second son was with me in the fight, and escaped unharmed. This I mention for the benefit of his friends. Old Preacher White, I hear, boasts of having killed my son. Of course he is a lion. JOHN BROWN.

LAWRENCE, KANSAS, *Sept. 7, 1856.*

BROWN'S PLAN AS EXPLAINED IN 1858, REPORTED BY RICHARD REALF.

John Brown stated that for twenty or thirty years the idea had possessed him like a passion of giving liberty to the slaves; that he made a journey to England, during which he made a tour upon the European continent, inspecting all fortifications, and especially all earthwork forts which he could find, with a view of applying the knowledge thus gained, with modifications and inventions of his own, to a mountain warfare in the United States. He stated that he had read all the books upon insurrectionary warfare that he could lay his hands on: the Roman warfare, the successful opposition of the Spanish chieftains during the period when Spain was a Roman province—how with 10,000 men, divided and subdivided into small companies, acting simultaneously yet separately, they withstood the whole consolidated power of the Roman Empire through a number of years. In addition to this, he had become very familiar with the successful warfare waged by Schamyl, the Circassian chief, against the Russians; he had posted himself in relation to the war of Toussaint L'Ouverture: he had become thoroughly acquainted with the wars in Hayti and the islands round about; and from all these things he had drawn the conclusion—believing, as he stated there he did believe, and as we all (if I may judge from myself) believed—that upon the first intimation of a plan formed for the liberation of the slaves, they would immediately rise all over the Southern States. He supposed that they would come into the mountains to join

him, where he purposed to work, and that by flocking to his standard they would enable him (making the line of mountains which cut diagonally through Maryland and Virginia, down through the Southern States into Tennessee and Alabama, the base of his operations) to act upon the plantations on the plains lying on each side of that range of mountains; that we should be able to establish ourselves in the fastnesses. And if any hostile action were taken against us, either by the militia of the States or by the armies of the United States, we purposed to defeat first the militia, and next, if possible, the troops of the United States; and then organize the free blacks under the provisional constitution, which would carve out for the locality of its jurisdiction all that mountainous region in which the blacks were to be established, in which they were to be taught the useful and mechanical arts, and all the business of life. Schools were also to be established, and so on. The negroes were to be his soldiers.

PROVISIONAL CONSTITUTION AND ORDINANCES FOR THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.

[This is the preamble of the constitution drawn up by Brown in 1858 for the government of the slaves whom he proposed to free.]

Preamble.

Whereas slavery, throughout its entire existence in the United States, is none other than a most barbarous, unprovoked, and unjustifiable war of one portion of its citizens upon another portion—the only conditions of which are perpetual imprisonment and hopeless servitude or absolute extermination — in utter disregard and violation of those eternal and self-evident truths set forth in our Declaration of Independence:

Therefore, we, citizens of the United States, and the oppressed people who by a recent decision of the Supreme Court are declared to have no rights which the white man is bound to respect, together with all other people degraded by the laws thereof, do, for the time being, ordain and establish for ourselves the following Provisional Constitution and Ordinances, the better to protect our persons, property, lives, and liberties, and to govern our actions.

LETTER TO THEODORE PARKER.

BOSTON, MASS., *March 7, 1858.*

MY DEAR SIR,—Since you know I have an almost countless brood of poor hungry chickens to "scratch for," you will not reproach me for scratching even on the Sabbath. At any rate, I trust God will not. I want you to undertake to provide a substitute for an address you saw last season, directed to the officers and soldiers of the United States army. The ideas contained in that address I of course like, for I furnished the skeleton. I never had the ability to clothe those ideas in language at all to satisfy myself; and I was by no means satisfied with the style of that address, and do not know as I can give any correct idea of what I want. I will, however, try.

In the first place, it must be short, or it will not be generally read. It must be in the simplest or plainest language, without the least affectation of the scholar about it, and yet be worded with great clearness and power. The anonymous writer must (in the language of the Paddy) be "afther others," and not "afther himself at all, at all." If the spirit that communicated Franklin's Poor Richard (or some other good spirit) would dictate, I think it would be quite as well employed as the "dear sister spirits" have been for some years past. The address should be appropriate, and particularly adapted to the peculiar circumstances we anticipate, and should look to the actual change of service from that of Satan to the service of God. It should be, in short, a most earnest and powerful appeal to men's sense of right and to their feelings of humanity. Soldiers are men, and no man can certainly calculate the value and importance of getting a single "nail into old Captain Kidd's chest." It should be provided beforehand, and be ready in advance to distribute by all persons, male and female, who may be disposed to favor the right.

I also want a similar short address, appropriate to the peculiar circumstances, intended for all persons, old and young, male and female, slave-holding and non-slave-holding, to be sent out broadcast over the entire nation. So by every male and

female prisoner on being set at liberty, and to be read by them during confinement. I know that men will listen, and reflect, too, under such circumstances. Persons will hear your anti-slavery lectures and abolition lectures when they have become virtually slaves themselves. The impressions made on prisoners by kindness and plain dealing, instead of barbarous and cruel treatment, such as they might give, and instead of being slaughtered like wild reptiles, as they might very naturally expect, are not only powerful, but lasting. Females are susceptible of being carried away entirely by the kindness of an intrepid and magnanimous soldier, even when his bare name was but a terror the day previous. Now, dear sir, I have told you about as well as I know what I am anxious at once to secure. Will you write the tracts, or get them written, so that I may commence colporteur?

Very respectfully your friend,

JOHN BROWN.

BROWN'S ADDRESS TO GOVERNOR WISE.

Governor,—I have from all appearances not more than fifteen or twenty years the start of you in the journey to that eternity of which you kindly warn me; and, whether my time here shall be fifteen months or fifteen days or fifteen hours, I am equally prepared to go. There is an eternity behind and an eternity before; and this little speck in the centre, however long, is but comparatively a minute. The difference between your tenure and mine is trifling, and I therefore tell you to be prepared. I am prepared. You all have a heavy responsibility, and it behooves you to prepare more than it does me.

BROWN'S LAST SPEECH TO THE COURT, NOV. 2, 1859.

I have, may it please the court, a few words to say.

In the first place, I deny everything but what I have all along admitted—the design on my part to free the slaves. I intended certainly to have made a clean thing of that matter, as I did last winter, when I went into Missouri and there took slaves without the snapping of a gun on either side, moved them through the country, and finally left them in Canada. I designed to have done the same thing again, on a larger scale. That was all I intended. I never did intend murder, or treason, or the destruction of property, or to excite or incite slaves to rebellion, or to make insurrection.

I have another objection; and that is, it is unjust that I should suffer such a penalty. Had I interfered in the manner which I admit, and which I admit has been fairly proved (for I admire the truthfulness and candor of the great portion of the witnesses who have testified in this case)—had I so interfered in behalf of the rich, the powerful, the intelligent, the so-called great, or in behalf of any of their friends—either father, mother, brother, sister, wife, or children, or any of that class—and suffered and sacrificed what I have in this interference, it would have been all right; and every man in this court would have deemed it an act worthy of reward rather than punishment.

This court acknowledges, as I suppose, the validity of the law of God. I see a book kissed here which I suppose to be the Bible, or at least the New Testament. That teaches me that all things whatsoever I would that men should do to me, I should do even so to them. It teaches me, further, to "remember them that are in bonds, as bound with them." I endeavored to act up to that instruction. I say, I am yet too young to understand that God is any respecter of persons. I believe that to have interfered as I have done—as I have always freely admitted I have done—in behalf of His despised poor, was not wrong, but right. Now, if it be deemed necessary that I should forfeit my life for the furtherance of the ends of justice, and mingle my blood further with the blood of my children and with the blood of millions in this slave country whose rights are disregarded by wicked, cruel, and unjust enactments—I submit; so let it be done!

Let me say one word further.

I feel entirely satisfied with the treatment I have received on my trial. Considering all the circumstances, it has been more generous than I expected. But I feel no consciousness of guilt. I have stated from the first what was my intention, and what was not. I never had any design against the life of any per-

son, nor any disposition to commit treason, or excite slaves to rebel, or make any general insurrection. I never encouraged any man to do so, but always discouraged any idea of that kind.

Let me say, also, a word in regard to the statements made by some of those connected with me. I hear it has been stated by some of them that I have induced them to join me. But the contrary is true. I do not say this to injure them, but as regretting their weakness. There is not one of them but joined me of his own accord, and the greater part of them at their own expense. A number of them I never saw, and never had a word of conversation with, till the day they came to me; and that was for the purpose I have stated.

Now I have done.

Brown, JOHN, merchant; born in Providence, R. I., Jan. 27, 1736. In the attack on the British sloop-of-war GASPEE (*q. v.*) in 1772 he was one of the leaders. In his account of the burning of the ship, Bancroft says: "The following night a party of men in six or seven boats, led by John and Joseph Brown, of Providence, and Simeon Potter, of Bristol, boarded the stranded ship, after a scuffle in which Dudingston was wounded, took and landed its crew, and then set it on fire." Brown was elected a member of the State legislature several times, and was a member of Congress, 1799–1801. He died Sept. 20, 1803.

Brown, JOHN, military officer; born in Sandisfield, Mass., Oct. 19, 1744; graduated at Yale College in 1771; studied law with Oliver Arnold in Providence; appointed King's attorney at Johnstown, N. Y.; resigned this office in 1773 to practise law at Pittsfield, Mass.; member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress, 1774, in which year he was selected by the State committee of correspondence to go to Canada for the purpose of exciting the Canadians to revolt. Brown returned in the autumn of 1774. He notified the committee that Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys would attack FORT TICONDEROGA (*q. v.*) as soon as hostilities began. When the fort was captured, Brown took charge of the prisoners, and on May 17 he reported to the Continental Congress in Philadelphia, of which he was a member. In July he accompanied Allen on his Canadian expedition, and Sept. 24 he took FORT CHAMBLY (*q. v.*). The next day Allen, who expected the co-operation of Brown, marched upon Montreal, but was attacked by a superior force and was taken prisoner.

While Arnold was before Quebec, Major Brown arrived from Sorel to join him. Montgomery had arrived two days earlier. In the attack on QUEBEC (*q. v.*), Dec. 31, he was directed to make a false attack to the south of St. John's gate and to set fire to the gate itself. He successfully executed his orders.

Congress promoted Brown to lieutenant-colonel Aug. 1, 1776, with rank and pay from November, 1775. After the defeat of Colonel Baum at Bennington in 1777, Brown was despatched by General Lincoln to Lake George with 500 men. He attacked the British at break of day, Sept. 17, three miles from Ticonderoga, set at liberty 100 American prisoners, captured nearly 300 British, 400 batteaux, a sloop, several gunboats, some cannon, and a vast amount of plunder. After this exploit he joined the main army a few weeks before the surrender of Burgoyne. Soon after this event Colonel Brown resigned his commission on account of his detestation of Arnold. Three years before Arnold's treason, Brown published a handbill of thirteen or fourteen articles against Arnold, then at the height of his fame, charging him with levying contributions on the Canadians for his private use, and adding that Arnold would prove a traitor, for he had sold many a life for money. He was elected a member of the General Court of Massachusetts in 1778.

In the fall of 1780 he marched up the Mohawk Valley to the relief of General Schuyler, but was led into an ambuscade at Stone Arabia, and killed in the conflict, Oct. 19, 1780.

Brown, JOHN, pioneer; born in England in 1630; removed with his parents to Rhode Island in 1638; held many offices in the colony. He died about 1706.

Brown, JOHN, statesman; born in Staunton, Va., Sept. 12, 1757; enlisted in the Continental army while a student at Princeton; member of the Virginia legislature, 1783; member of the Continental Congress, 1787–88; United States Senator

from Kentucky, 1792–1805. At his death, Aug. 29, 1837, he was the last surviving member of the Continental Congress.

Brown, JOHN B., statesman; born in Richfield, N. Y., July 16, 1807; removed to Virginia in 1849; delegate to the Republican national conventions of 1856 and 1860; arrested in Virginia on the charge of circulating incendiary documents, and imprisoned. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 9, 1867.

Brown, JOHN CALVIN, military officer; born in Giles county, Tenn., Jan. 6, 1827; graduated at Jackson College in 1846; entered the Confederate army as captain in 1861, reaching the rank of major-general. He was president of the Tennessee constitutional convention of 1870, and was governor of the State, 1870–74. He died in Red Boiling Spring, Tenn., Aug. 17, 1889.

Brown, JOHN CARTER, merchant; born in Providence, R. I., Aug. 28, 1797; second son of Nicholas Brown, 2d, the patron of Brown University, at which he graduated in 1816. He engaged largely in the business of manufactures and merchandise. He travelled much in the United States, and resided in Europe, at different times, for several years. In 1828 he was chosen a trustee, and in 1842 a fellow, of Brown University, and so remained until his death in Providence, June 10, 1874, bestowing many munificent gifts upon that institution. Together they amounted to $70,000. In his will he made liberal provision for a new library building, which has since been erected. His entire benefactions to the university amounted to nearly $160,000. Mr. Brown never took any prominent part in public affairs; but he was an active friend of the bondsmen, and did much, in his quiet way, in aid of the cause of freedom in the struggle in Kansas, giving money liberally for the promotion of emigration thither from New England. During almost his whole life Mr. Brown was engaged in the collection of a library of American history, in which his friend JOHN RUSSELL BARTLETT (*q. v.*) materially aided him. He aimed to gather early, rare, and valuable books, which, by proper classification, would show the methods of American colonization and subsequent development of its civilization. For fully forty years before his death he pursued this object with zeal, and left one of the rarest collections of the kind ever made. It comprised about 10,000 volumes; and it gave to John Carter Brown a foremost place among the distinguished historical collectors of the world. See BROWN UNIVERSITY.

Brown, JOHN HENRY, author; born in Pike county, Miss., Oct. 29, 1820; served in the regiment of Texas Rangers during the Mexican War, 1846–48; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War. Among his writings are *History of Texas from 1685 to 1892; Life of Henry Smith, First Governor of Texas; Indian Wars and Pioneers of Texas*, etc.

Brown, JOSEPH EMERSON, jurist; born in Pickens county, S. C., April 15, 1821; removed to Georgia in 1836; admitted to the bar in 1845; elected to the State Senate in 1849; and was governor of Georgia in 1857–65. During the Civil War he threw his influence on the side of the Confederacy, but antagonized some of the war measures of Jefferson Davis and refused to allow State troops to be sent out of the State to check Sherman's march. When peace was concluded he favored the reconstruction policy of the federal government, though the Democratic party of Georgia opposed it. In 1880–91 he held a seat in the United States Senate, and during his last term in that body was a member of the committees on civil service, retrenchment, foreign relations, and railroads. He died in Atlanta, Ga., Nov. 30, 1894.

Brown, MOSES, naval officer; born in Newburyport, Mass., Jan. 20, 1742; served through the Revolutionary War. While in command of the *Intrepid* he captured four English vessels in the latter half of 1779, and was placed in command of the *Merrimac* when that vessel was completed for the government. In 1799–1801 he captured the French ships *Le Phénix, Le Magicien, Le Bonaparte,* and *Le Brillante.* He died at sea, Jan. 1, 1804.

Brown, NICHOLAS, philanthropist; born in Providence, R. I., April 4, 1769; son of Nicholas Brown, 1st; graduated at Rhode Island College (afterwards Brown University) in 1786; became a very successful merchant in 1791; was a member of the Rhode Island legislature, and, giving

money liberally to his *alma mater*, the name of Brown University was given to it. He gave in all about $100,000 to that college, and liberally patronized other institutions of learning. He gave nearly $10,000 to the Providence Athenæum, and bequeathed $30,000 for an insane asylum in Providence. He died in Providence, Sept. 27, 1841.

Brown University, a coeducational institution; originally established under the auspices of the Baptist Church in Warren, R. I., in 1764; and incorporated under the title of Rhode Island College. In 1770 the institution was removed to Providence, where it has since remained, and in 1804 its name was changed to Brown University in recognition of the liberality of NICHOLAS BROWN (*q. v.*). In 1900 the university reported seventy-five professors and instructors; 886 students in all departments; two fellowships; 100 scholarships; 5,260 graduates; 105,000 bound volumes and 35,000 pamphlets in the library; scientific apparatus valued at $340,000; ground and buildings valued at $1,177,967; productive funds aggregating $1,297,227; and total income for the year $176,923.

Browne, CHARLES FARRAR, humorist; born in Waterford, Maine, April 26, 1834; bred a printer, later became a journalist. His clever and witty sketches, combined with the most atrocious spelling, won him a great reputation as a humorist, under the pen-name of ARTEMUS WARD. He lectured in the United States from 1861 to 1866, when he removed to England, where he was very successful. He died in Southampton, England, March 6, 1867.

Browne, FRANCIS FISHER, author; born in South Halifax, Vt., Dec. 1, 1843; enlisted as a private in the 46th Massachusetts U. S. V. in 1862; removed to Chicago in 1867; founded the *Dial* in 1880. Among his works are *The Every-day Life of Abraham Lincoln; Bugle Echoes; Northern and Southern*, etc.

Browne, JOHN ROSS, artist and author; born in Ireland in 1817; engaged on the United States official publication, *Resources of the Pacific Slope*, in 1866 and 1868; United States minister to China in 1868. Among his works, illustrated by himself, are *An American Family in Germany; the Land of War; Yusef; Crusoe's Island; Etchings of a Whaling Cruise*, etc. He died in Oakland, Cal., Dec. 9, 1875.

Browne, WILLIAM, loyalist; born in Massachusetts, Feb. 27, 1737; graduated at Harvard in 1755; judge of the Massachusetts Superior Court, 1773–74; removed to England in 1776. He was banished in 1778 and his estates confiscated. He was governor of Bermuda, 1781–90. He died in England, Feb. 13, 1802.

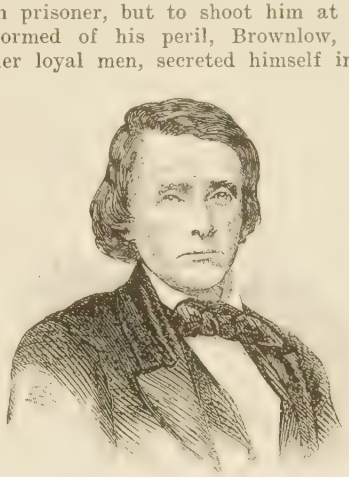
Browne, WILLIAM HAND, author; born in Baltimore, Md., Dec. 31, 1828; graduated at the University of Maryland in 1850; editor of the *Southern Review* and the *Southern Magazine*, 1867–75. He wrote *The Life of Alexander H. Stephens; History of Maryland; George and Cecil Calvert*, etc.

Browning, ORVILLE HICKMAN, statesman; born in Harrison county, Ky., in 1810; removed to Illinois in 1831; served in the Black Hawk War in 1832; United States Senator, 1861–63; Secretary of the Interior, 1865–69; and acted as Attorney-General, 1868–69. He died in Quincy, Ill., Aug. 10, 1881.

Brownists, the name given to those Puritans who went to Holland and afterwards emigrated to New England; so named from their leader, Robert Brown. As early as 1580, Brown began to inveigh against the ceremonies of the Church of England. Being opposed by the bishops, he and his congregation left England and settled in Holland. At the close of the century there were about 20,000 Brownists in England. Of that sect were Rev. Mr. Robinson, Elder Brewster, and the congregation at Leyden in 1620. The founder of this sect was born about the year 1550, and died about 1630. His family were closely connected with Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh. Educated at Cambridge, as soon as he left college he began a vigorous opposition to the whole discipline and liturgy of the Established Church. He taught that all the members of a church were equal, and that the pastor should be chosen by the congregation. See BRADFORD, WILLIAM.

Brownlow, WILLIAM GANNAWAY, clergyman and journalist; born in Wythe county, Va., Aug. 29, 1805; was left an orphan at eleven years of age, and, by means of wages as a carpenter in his youth, acquired a fair English education. At the age of twenty-four years he en-

tered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and was an itinerant for ten years. While on his circuit in South Carolina he opposed the nullification movement in that State (see NULLIFICATION), which excited strong opposition to him. About 1837 he began the publication of the Knoxville *Whig*, a political newspaper, which soon circulated widely, and, for its vigorous polemics, obtained for Brownlow the name of the "Fighting Parson." In 1858 he engaged in a public debate in Philadelphia on the question, "Ought American Slavery to be Perpetuated?" in which he took the affirmative. When the secession movement began, he boldly opposed it, taking the ground that the preservation of the Union would furnish the best safeguard of Southern institutions, and especially of slavery. So outspoken and influential was Mr. Brownlow that, in December, 1861, he was arrested, by order of the Confederate authorities, on a charge of treason against the Confederacy, and confined in Knoxville jail, where he suffered much until released in March, 1862. Then he was sent within the Union lines at Nashville. Afterwards he made a tour in the Northern States, delivering speeches in the principal cities. At Philadelphia he was joined by his family, who had been expelled from Knoxville, where he published *Sketches of the Rise, Progress, and Decline of Secession, with a Narrative of Personal Adventures among the Rebels.* Brownlow was governor of Tennessee in 1865–69, and United States Senator from 1869 until his death in Knoxville, April 29, 1877. He was a man of fearless spirit, held such a caustic pen, and maintained such influential social and political relations that he was intensely hated and feared by the Confederates. The latter longed for an occasion to silence him, and finally they made the false charge that he was accessory to the firing of several railway bridges in eastern Tennessee to cut off communication between Virginia and that region. His life had been frequently menaced by Confederate soldiers, and, at the urgent solicitation of his family, he left home in the autumn (1861), and went into another district. While he was absent several bridges were burned. Believing him to have been concerned in the burning, the Confederate Colonel Wood—a Methodist preacher from Alabama—was sent out, with some cavalry, with orders, publicly given at Knoxville, not to take him prisoner, but to shoot him at once. Informed of his peril, Brownlow, with other loyal men, secreted himself in the



WILLIAM GANNAWAY BROWNLOW.

Smoky Mountains, on the borders of North Carolina, where they were fed by loyalists. The Confederates finally resolved to get rid of this "dangerous citizen" by giving him a pass to go into Kentucky under a military escort. He received such a pass at Knoxville, and was about to depart for the Union lines, when he was arrested for treason. By the assurance of safety he had gone to Knoxville for his pass, and so put himself in the hands of his enemies. He and some of the best men in eastern Tennessee were cast into the county jail, where they suffered intensely. Deprived of every comfort, they were subjected to the vile ribaldry of the guards, and constantly threatened with death by hanging. Acting upon the suggestions of Benjamin, men *charged* with bridge-burning, and confined with Brownlow, were hanged, and their bodies were left suspended as a warning. In the midst of these fiery trials Brownlow remained firm, and exercised great boldness of speech. They dared not hang *him* without a legal trial and conviction. They offered him life and liberty if he would take the oath of allegiance to the Confederacy. He refused with scorn. To Benjamin he wrote: "You are report-

ed to have said to a gentleman in Richmond that I am a bad man, and dangerous to the Confederacy, and that you desire me out of it. Just give me my passport, and I will do for your Confederacy more than the devil has ever done—I will quit the country." Benjamin soon afterwards indicated a wish that Brownlow should be sent out of the Confederacy, "only," he said, "because color is given to the suspicion that he has been entrapped." He was finally released, and sent to Nashville (then in possession of National troops) early in March, 1862.

Brown's Ferry, SEIZURE OF. Gen. G. W. F. Smith undertook to open a more direct way for supplies for the National troops at CHATTANOOGA (*q. v.*). In co-operation with Hooker's advance on Wauhatchie, he sent General Hazen from Chattanooga, with 1,800 men in bateaux, to construct a pontoon bridge below. These floated noiselessly and undiscerned in the night (Oct. 26–27, 1863) down the Tennessee River, past the point of Lookout Mountain, along a line of Confederate pickets 7 miles in length. They landed at Brown's Ferry, on the south side, captured the pickets there, and seized a low range of hills that commanded Lookout Valley. Another force, 1,200 strong, under General Turchin, had moved down the north bank of the river to the ferry at about the same time; and by ten o'clock a pontoon bridge was laid, and a strong *abatis* for defence was constructed. The Confederates, bewildered, withdrew up the valley. Before night the left of Hooker's line rested on Smith's right at the pontoon bridge. By this operation the railway from Bridgeport well up towards Chattanooga was put in possession of the Nationals, and the route for supplies for the troops at the latter place was reduced by land from 60 to 28 miles along a safe road; and by using the river to Kelly's Ferry, to 8 miles.

Brownstown, MICH., BATTLE AT. See VAN HORNE, THOMAS B.

Brush, CHARLES FRANCIS, inventor; born in Euclid, O., March 17, 1849; was graduated at the University of Michigan in 1869. He was one of the earliest workers in the field of electric lighting, and invented the arc electric light. He is a fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and a life-member of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. In 1881 the French government decorated him, and in March, 1900, he received the Rumford medal from the American Academy.

Brussels Conference. See MONETARY REFORM.

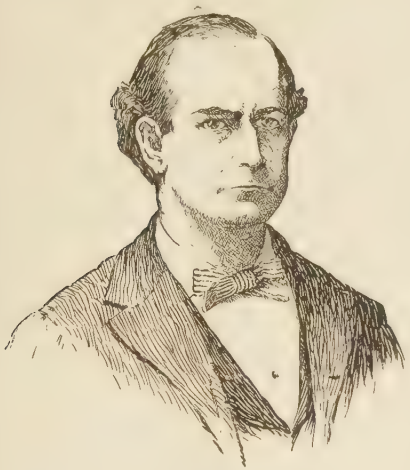
Bruyas, JACQUES. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS

Bryan, WILLIAM JENNINGS, politician; born in Salem, Ill., March 19, 1860; was graduated at Illinois College in 1881, and at Union College of Law, Chicago, in 1883. He practised in Jacksonville, Ill., from 1883 till 1887, then removed to Lincoln, Neb., and was elected to Congress as a Democrat, serving in 1891–95. In 1894–96 he was editor of the Omaha *World-Herald*, and in the latter year a delegate to the National Democratic Convention at Chicago. He there made a notable speech advocating the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. The free-silver element in the convention was far stronger than the leaders of the party imagined, and there was as much surprise in the convention as out of it when its prize, the Presidential nomination, was awarded to him. The Sound-money Democrats repudiated the nomination, organized the National Democratic party, and put forth a separate platform and national ticket. The Populists, however, adopted the Democratic nominee as their own, but with a different candidate for the Vice-Presidency. During the campaign that ensued, Mr. Bryan made a speaking tour more than 18,000 miles in extent. With virtually seven Presidential tickets in the field, Mr. Bryan as the Democratic and Populist candidate received 6,502,925 popular and 176 electoral votes, while Mr. McKinley, the Republican candidate, received 7,104,779 popular and 271 electoral votes. In 1897 and the early part of 1898 Mr. Bryan delivered a number of lectures on BIMETALLISM

(*q. v.*). On the declaration of war against Spain he was commissioned colonel of the 3d Nebraska Volunteer Infantry. Neither he nor his regiment saw fighting during the war, both being held in reserve in the United States, with other regiments, at Camp Onward.

The Democratic National Convention



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

of 1900 made declarations antagonistic to President McKinley's administration, basing its chief opposition on allegations that the Republican party had become wedded to a policy of territorial expansion, and to the encouragement of trusts. Mr. Bryan made another remarkable speaking tour, and neglected no opportunity to expound the free-silver policy. The results of the elections were: For the Republican candidates, 7,217,677 popular and 292 electoral votes; for the Democratic candidates, 6,357,853 popular and 155 electoral votes; showing an increase in the Republican plurality over that of 1896 of 246,025. Mr. Bryan soon afterwards established a weekly newspaper for the purpose of continuing his efforts in behalf of free silver.

Although it was evident long before the National Democratic Convention of 1904 that a large majority of the party desired the nomination of ALTON B. PARKER (*q. v.*) for the Presidency, Mr. Bryan was clearly the most conspicuous figure in that assembly. On July 7 the Committee on Resolutions adopted his draft of a tariff plank; but the same day he was defeated on the contested-seat cases in Illinois by a vote of 647 to 299. He seconded the nomination of Francis M. Cockrell for the Presidency in a speech which electrified the great audience. After Judge Parker's nomination Mr. Bryan pledged his support to the candidate.

The Cross of Gold.—At the National Democratic Convention in Chicago, in 1896, Mr. Bryan delivered the following speech:

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen of the Convention,—I would be presumptuous, indeed, to present myself against the distinguished gentlemen to whom you have listened, if this were a mere measuring of abilities; but this is not a contest between persons. The humblest in all the land, when clad in the armor of a righteous cause, is stronger than all the hosts of error. I come to speak to you in defence of a cause as holy as the cause of liberty —the cause of humanity.

When this debate is concluded, a motion will be made to lay upon the table the resolution offered in commendation of the administration, and also the resolution offered in condemnation of the administration. We object to bringing this question down to the level of persons. The individual is but an atom; he is born, he acts, he dies; but principles are eternal; and this has been a contest over a principle.

Never before in the history of this country has there been witnessed such a contest as that through which we have just passed. Never before in the history of American politics has a great issue been fought out as this issue has been, by the voters of a great party. On the 4th of March, 1895, a few Democrats, most of them members of Congress, issued an address to the Democrats of the nation, asserting that the money question was the paramount issue of the hour; declaring that a majority of the Democratic party had the right to control the action of the party on this paramount issue; and concluding with the request that the believers in the free coinage of silver in the Democratic party should organize, take charge of, and control the policy of the Democratic party. Three days

later, at Memphis, an organization was perfected, and the Silver Democrats went forth openly and courageously, proclaiming their belief, and declaring that, if successful, they would crystallize into a platform the declaration which they had made. Then began the conflict. With a zeal approaching the zeal which inspired the crusaders who followed Peter the Hermit, our Silver Democrats went forth from victory unto victory until they are now assembled, not to discuss, not to debate, but to enter up the judgment already rendered by the plain people of this country. In this contest brother has been arrayed against brother, father against son. The warmest ties of love, acquaintance, and association have been disregarded; old leaders have been cast aside when they have refused to give expression to the sentiments of those whom they would lead, and new leaders have sprung up to give direction to this cause of truth. Thus has the contest been waged, and we have assembled here under as binding and solemn instructions as were ever imposed upon representatives of the people.

We do not come as individuals. As individuals we might have been glad to compliment the gentleman from New York (Senator Hill), but we know that the people for whom we speak would never be willing to put him in a position where he could thwart the will of the Democratic party. I say it was not a question of persons; it was a question of principles, and it is not with gladness, my friends, that we find ourselves brought into conflict with those who are now arrayed on the other side.

The gentleman who preceded me (ex-Governor Russell) spoke of the State of Massachusetts. Let me assure him that not one present in all this convention entertains the least hostility to the people who are the equals, before the law, of the greatest citizens in the State of Massachusetts. When you (turning to the gold delegates) come before us and tell us that we are about to disturb your business interests, we reply that you have disturbed our business interests by your course.

We say to you that you have made the definition of a business too limited in its application. The man who is employed for wages is as much a business man as his employer; the attorney in a country town is as much a business man as the corporation counsel in a great metropolis; the merchant at the cross-roads store is as much a business man as the merchant of New York; the farmer who goes forth in the morning and toils all day—who begins in the spring and toils all summer—and who by the application of brain and muscle to the natural resources of the country creates wealth, is as much a business man as the man who goes upon the board of trade and bets upon the price of grain; the miners who go down 1,000 feet into the earth, or climb 2,000 feet upon the cliffs, and bring forth from the hiding places the precious metals to be poured in the channels of trade, are as much business men as the few financial magnates who, in a back room, corner the money of the world. We come to speak for this broader class of business men.

Ah, my friends, we say not one word against those who live upon the Atlantic coast; but the hardy pioneers who have braved all the danger of the wilderness, who have made the desert to blossom as the rose—the pioneers away out there (pointing to the West), who rear their children near to Nature's heart, where they can mingle their voices with the voices of the birds—out there where they have erected school-houses for the education of their young, churches where they praise their Creator, and cemeteries where rest the ashes of their dead—these people, we say, are as deserving of the consideration of our party as any people in this country. It is for these that we speak. We do not come as aggressors. Our war is not a war of conquest; we are fighting in the defence of our homes, our families, and posterity. We have petitioned, and our petitions have been scorned; we have entreated, and our entreaties have been disregarded; we have begged, and they have mocked when our calamity came. We beg no longer; we entreat no more; we petition no more. We defy them.

The gentleman from Wisconsin has said that he fears a Robespierre. My friends, in this land of the free you need not fear that a tyrant will spring up from among the people. What we need is an Andrew Jackson to stand, as Jackson stood,

against the encroachments of organized wealth.

They tell us that this platform was made to catch votes. We reply to them that changing conditions make new issues; that the principles upon which Democracy rests are as everlasting as the hills, but that they must be applied to new conditions as they rise. Conditions have arisen, and we are here to meet those conditions. They tell us that the income tax ought not to be brought in here; that it is a new idea. They criticise us for our criticism of the Supreme Court of the United States. My friends, we have not criticised; we have simply called attention to what you already know. If you want criticisms, read the dissenting opinions of the court. There you will find criticisms. They say that we passed an unconstitutional law; we deny it. The income-tax law was not unconstitutional when it passed; it was not unconstitutional when it went before the Supreme Court for the first time; it did not become unconstitutional until one of the judges changed his mind; and we cannot be expected to know when a judge will change his mind. The income tax is just. It simply intends to put the burdens of the government justly upon the backs of the people. I am in favor of an income tax. When I find a man who is not willing to bear his share of the burdens of the government which protects him, I find a man who is unworthy to enjoy the blessings of a government like ours.

They say that we are opposing national bank currency; it is true. If you will read what Thomas Benton said, you will find he said that, in searching history, he could find but one parallel to Andrew Jackson; that was Cicero, who destroyed the conspiracy of Catiline and saved Rome. Benton said that Cicero only did for Rome what Jackson did for us when he destroyed the bank conspiracy and saved America. We say in our platform that we believe that the right to coin and issue money is a function of government. We believe it. We believe that it is a part of sovereignty, and can no more with safety be delegated to private individuals than we could afford to delegate to private individuals the power to make penal statutes or levy taxes. Mr. Jefferson, who was once regarded as good Democratic authority, seems to have differed in opinion from the gentleman who has addressed us on the part of the minority. Those who are opposed to this proposition tell us that the issue of paper money is a function of the bank, and that the government ought to go out of the banking business. I stand with Jefferson rather than with them, and tell them, as he did, that the issue of money is a function of government, and that the banks ought to go out of the governing business.

They complain about the plank which declares against life tenure in office. They have tried to strain it to mean that which it does not mean. What we oppose by that plank is the life tenure which is being built up in Washington, and which excludes from participation in official benefits the humbler members of society.

Let me call your attention to two or three important things. The gentleman from New York says that he will propose an amendment to the platform providing that the proposed change in our monetary system shall not affect contracts already made. Let me remind you that there is no intention of affecting these contracts which according to present laws are made payable in gold; but if he means to say that we cannot change our monetary system without protecting those who have loaned money before the change was made, I desire to ask him where, in law or in morals, he can find justification for not protecting the debtors when the act of 1873 was passed, if he now insists that we must protect the creditors.

He says he will also propose an amendment which will provide for the suspension of free coinage, if we fail to maintain the parity, within a year. We reply that when we advocate a policy which we believe will be successful, we are not compelled to raise a doubt as to our own sincerity by suggesting what we shall do if we fail. I ask him, if he would apply his logic to us, why he does not apply it to himself. He says he wants this country to try to secure an international agreement. Why does he not tell us what he is going to do if he fails to secure an international agreement? There is more reason for him to do that than there is for us to provide against the failure to maintain the parity. Our opponents have

tried for twenty years to secure an international agreement, and those are waiting for it most patiently who do not want it at all.

And now, my friends, let me come to the paramount issue. If they ask us why it is that we say more on the money question than we say upon the tariff question, I reply that, if protection has slain its thousands, the gold standard has slain its tens of thousands. If they ask us why we do not embody in our platform all the things that we believe in, we reply that when we have restored the money of the Constitution all other necessary reforms will be possible; but that until this is done there is no other reform that can be accomplished.

Why is it that within three months such a change has come over the country? Three months ago, when it was confidently asserted that those who believe in the gold standard would frame our platform and nominate our candidates, even the advocates of the gold standard did not think that we could elect a President. And they had good reason for their doubt, because there is scarcely a State here to-day asking for the gold standard which is not in the absolute control of the Republican party. But note the change. Mr. McKinley was nominated in St. Louis upon a platform which declared for the maintenance of the gold standard until it can be changed into bimetallism by international agreement. Mr. McKinley was the most popular man among the Republicans, and three months ago everybody in the Republican party prophesied his election. How is it to-day? Why, the man who was once pleased to think that he looked like Napoleon—that man shudders to-day when he remembers that he was nominated on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo. Not only that, but as he listens he can hear with ever-increasing distinctness the sounds of the waves as they beat upon the lonely shores of St. Helena.

Why this change? Ah, my friends, is not the reason for the change evident to any one who will look at the matter? No private character, however pure, no personal popularity, however great, can protect from the avenging wrath of an indignant people a man who will declare that he is in favor of fastening the gold standard upon this country, or who is willing to surrender the right of self-government, and place the legislative control of our affairs in the hands of foreign potentates and powers.

We go forth confident that we shall win. Why? Because upon the paramount issue of this campaign there is not a spot of ground upon which the enemy will dare to challenge battle. If they tell us that the gold standard is a good thing, we shall point to their platform and tell them that their platform pledges the party to get rid of the gold standard and substitute bimetallism. If the gold standard is a good thing, why try to get rid of it? I call your attention to the fact that some of the very people who are in this convention to-day, and who tell us that we ought to declare in favor of international bimetallism—thereby declaring that the gold standard is wrong, and that the principle of bimetallism is better—these very people four months ago were open and avowed advocates of the gold standard, and were then telling us we could not legislate two metals together, even with the aid of all the world. If the gold standard is a good thing, we ought to declare in favor of its retention, and not in favor of abandoning it; and if the gold standard is a bad thing, why should we wait until other nations are willing to help us to let go? Here is the line of battle, and we care not upon which issue they force the fight; we are prepared to meet them on either issue or on both. If they tell us that the gold standard is the standard of civilization, we reply to them that this, the most enlightened of all nations of the earth, has never declared for a gold standard, and that both the great parties this year are declaring against it. If the gold standard is the standard of civilization, why, my friends, should we not have it? If they come to meet us on that issue, we can present the history of our nation. More than that; we can tell them that they will search the pages of history in vain to find a single instance where the common people of the land have ever declared themselves in favor of the gold standard. They can find where the holders of fixed investments have declared for a gold standard, but not where the masses have.

Mr. Carlisle said in 1878 that this was a struggle between "the idle holders of idle capital" and "the struggling masses, who produce the wealth and pay the taxes of the country," and, my friends, the question we are to decide is: Upon which side will the Democratic party fight; upon the side of "the idle holders of idle capital" or upon the side of "the struggling masses"? That is the question which the party must answer first, and then it must be answered by each individual hereafter. The sympathies of the Democratic party, as shown by the platform, are on the side of the struggling masses who have ever been the foundation of the Democratic party. There are two ideas of government. There are those who believe that, if you will only legislate to make the well-to-do prosperous, their prosperity will leak through on those below. The Democratic idea, however, has been that if you legislate to make the masses prosperous, their prosperity will find its way through every class which rests upon them.

You come to us and tell us that the great cities are in favor of the gold standard; we reply that the great cities rest upon our broad and fertile prairies. Burn down your cities and leave our farms, and your cities will spring up again as if by magic; but destroy our farms, and the grass will grow in the streets of every city in the country.

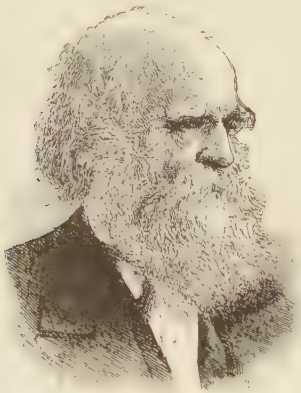
My friends, we declare that this nation is able to legislate for its own people on every question, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation on earth; and upon that issue we expect to carry every State in the Union. I shall not slander the inhabitants of the fair State of Massachusetts nor the inhabitants of the State of New York by saying that, when they are confronted with the proposition, they will declare that this nation is not able to attend to its own business. It is the issue of 1776 over again. Our ancestors, when but 3,000,000 in number, had the courage to declare their political independence of every other nation; shall we, their descendants, when we have grown to 70,000,000, declare that we are less independent than our forefathers? No, my friends, that will never be the verdict of our people. Therefore, we care not upon what lines the battle is fought. If they say bimetallism is good, but that we cannot have it until other nations help us, we reply that, instead of having a gold standard because England has, we will restore bimetallism, and then let England have bimetallism because the United States has it. If they dare to come out in the open field and defend the gold standard as a good thing, we will fight them to the uttermost. Having behind us the producing masses of this nation and the world, supported by the commercial interests, the laboring interests, and the toilers everywhere, we will answer their demand for a gold standard by saying to them: You shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns, you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold.

Bryant, WILLIAM CULLEN, poet; born in Cummington, Mass., Nov. 3, 1794. He communicated rhymes to the county newspaper before he was ten years of age. His father was a distinguished physician and man of letters, and took great pains in the instruction of his son. His poem on *The Embargo*, written at the age of thirteen, evinced great precocity of intellect. Young Bryant called the embargo act a "terrapin policy"—the policy designed by it of shutting up the nation in its own shell, as it were, like the terrapin with its head. In that poem he violently assailed President Jefferson, and revealed the intensity of the opposition to him and his policy in New England, which made even boys bitter politicians. Alluding to Jefferson's narrow escape from capture by Tarleton in 1781, his zeal for the French, and his scientific researches, young Bryant wrote:

"And thou, the scorn of every patriot name,
Thy country's ruin, and her council's shame!
Poor, servile thing! derision of the brave!
Who erst from Tarleton fled to Carter's cave;
Thou, who, when menaced by perfidious Gaul,
Didst prostrate to her whisker'd minion fall;
And when our cash his empty bags supplied,
Did meanly strive the foul disgrace to hide.
Go, wretch, resign the Presidential chair,
Disclose thy secret measures, foul or fair;
Go, search with curious eye for horned frogs
'Mid the wild wastes of Louisiana bogs,

Or, where Ohio rolls his turbid stream,
Dig for huge bones, thy glory and thy theme."

He wrote the poem *Thanatopsis* when he was in his nineteenth year. In 1810 he entered Williams College, but did not graduate. He was admitted to the bar in 1815, and practised some time in western Massachusetts. His first collection of poems was published in 1821, and this volume caused his immediate recognition as a poet of great merit. In 1825 Mr. Bryant became an associate editor of the New York *Review*. In 1826 he became connected with the New York *Evening Post*, and continued its editor until his



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

death. Meanwhile he contributed to literary publications. He made visits to Europe in 1834, 1845, 1849, and 1858–59, and in the intervals visited much of his own country from Maine to Florida. On the completion of his seventieth year, in 1864, his birthday was celebrated by a festival at the Century Club by prominent literary men. His translations of Homer into English blank verse were commended as the best rendering of the Epics in his native tongue ever made. His occasional speeches and more formal orations are models of stately style, sometimes enlivened by quiet humor. In prose composition Mr. Bryant was equally happy as in poetry in the choice of pure and elegant English words, with great delicacy of fancy pervading the whole. His last poem was published in the *Sunday-School Times*, Philadelphia, Feb. 22, 1878, on the subject of Washington, and written at the request of the editor of that paper. At the time of his death he was engaged with Sydney Howard Gay in the preparation of a *History of the United States*. He had also just completed, with the assistance of the late Evart A. Duykinck, a new and carefully annotated edition of *Shakespeare's Works*. He died in New York City, June 12, 1878.

Bryce, JAMES, historian; born in Belfast, Ireland, May 10, 1838; was graduated at Oxford University in 1862; practised law in London till 1882; and was Professor of Civil Law in Oxford in 1870–93. He was first elected to the British Parliament as a Liberal in 1880. He has distinguished himself alike in politics and historical literature, and is best known in the United States for his work on *The American Commonwealth*.

Bryce, LLOYD, author; born in Flushing, Long Island, N. Y., Sept. 20, 1851; was graduated at Oxford University and studied law in the Columbia Law School, New York; was a Democratic member of Congress in 1887–89. In the latter year he received a large interest in the *North American Review*, which he edited till 1896.

Buccaneers, THE, were daring adventurers, who first combined for the spoliation of the Spaniards in the West Indies and the islands of the Caribbean Sea. The first of these were mostly French, who attempted to introduce themselves into the West Indies not long after the conquests of the Spaniards there, and were called *flibustiers*, or freebooters. Their depredations among the islands were extensive and alarming. They made settlements in Santo Domingo, where the Spaniards attempted to expel them. Retaliation followed. In 1630 they made the little island of Tortugas, west of the Florida Keys, their stronghold, where, in armed bands in rowboats, they attacked Spanish vessels, lying in wait for them on their passage from America to Europe. The richly laden treasure-ships were boarded by them, plundered, and their crews cast into the sea. They extended their operations. The French buccaneers made their headquarters in Santo Domingo, and the English in Jamaica, during the long war be-

tween France and Spain (1635–60) and afterwards; and they were so numerous and bold that Spanish commerce soon declined, and Spanish ships dared not venture to America. Finding their own gains diminishing from want of richly laden vessels to plunder, they ceased pillaging vessels, and attacked and plundered Spanish towns on the coast of Central and South America. A number of these were seized, and immense treasures were carried away in the form of plunder or ransom. At Carthagena, in 1697, they procured $8,000,000. Their operations were finally broken up by an alliance against them of the English, Dutch, and Spanish governments. Exasperated at the conduct of the Spaniards in Florida, the Carolinas were disposed to give the buccaneers assistance in plundering them; and in 1684–93 they were sheltered in the harbor of Charleston.

Buchanan, FRANKLIN, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., Sept. 17, 1800; entered the navy in 1815; became lieutenant in 1825, and master-commander in 1841. He was the first superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Sympathizing with the Confederate movement, and believing his State would secede, he sent in his resignation. Finding that Maryland did not secede, he petitioned for restoration, but was refused, when he entered the Confederate service, and superintended the fitting-out of the old *Merrimac* (rechristened the *Virginia*) at Norfolk. In her he fought the *Monitor* and was severely wounded. He afterwards blew up his vessel to save her from capture. In command of the ironclad *Tennessee*, in Mobile Bay, he was defeated and made prisoner. He died in Talbot county, Md., May 11, 1874. See MONITOR AND MERRIMAC.

BUCHANAN, JAMES

Buchanan, JAMES, fifteenth President of the United States, from 1857 to 1861; Democrat; born near Mercersburg, Pa., April 23, 1791; was graduated at Dickinson College, Pa., at the age of eighteen years, and in 1814, when he was only twenty-three years old, he was elected to a seat in the Pennsylvania legislature. He had studied law, and was admitted to the bar at Lancaster in 1812. His father was a native of Ireland, and his mother was Elizabeth Spear, daughter of a farmer. Mr. Buchanan's career as a lawyer was so successful that, at the age of forty years, he retired from the profession with a handsome fortune. He was a Federalist in politics at first, and as such entered Congress as a member in 1821, where he held a seat ten successive years. When the Federal party disappeared he took sides with the Democrats. He supported Jackson for the Presidency in 1828, when the present Democratic party was organized. In 1832–34, Mr. Buchanan was United States minister at St. Petersburg, and from 1834 to 1845 was a member of the United States Senate. He was Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Polk, 1845–49, where he arrayed himself on the side of the pro-slavery men, opposing the WILMOT PROVISO (*q. v.*), and the anti-slavery movements generally. In 1853 President Pierce sent him as United States minister to England, where he remained until 1856, during which time he became a party in the conference of United States ministers at Ostend, and was a signer of the famous manifesto, or consular letter (see OSTEND MANIFESTO). In the fall of 1856 he was elected President of the United States, receiving 174 electoral votes to 129 given for Frémont (Republican) and Fillmore (American).

A chief topic of President Buchanan's inaugural address was the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States (not promulgated until two days afterwards) in the DRED SCOTT CASE (*q. v.*), and its effects. He spoke of that decision, which virtually declared the institution of slavery to be a national one, and that the black man "had no rights which the white man was bound to respect," and said it would "speedily and finally" settle the slavery question. He announced his intention to cheerfully abide by that decision. He declared that the question was wholly a judicial one, which belonged to the Supreme Court to settle; and that, as

by its decision the admission or rejection of slavery in any Territory was to be determined by the legal votes of the people in such Territory, the "whole territorial question was thus settled upon the principle of popular sovereignty—a principle as ancient as free government itself"; that "everything of a practical nature" had been settled; and that he seriously hoped the long agitation of the subject of slavery was "approaching its end." It was then only the "beginning of the end." That decision "kindled the fire" spoken of by the Georgian in the debate on the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*), "which only seas of blood could extinguish." The decision settled nothing "speedily and finally" but the destruction of the institution it was expected to preserve. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

On Dec. 27, 1860, news of the occupation of Fort Sumter by MAJ. ROBERT ANDERSON (*q. v.*) reached Washington. The cabinet assembled at noon. They had a stormy session. Floyd demanded of the President an order for Anderson's return to Fort Moultrie, urging that the President, if he should withhold it, would "violate the solemn pledges of the government." The President was inclined to give the order, but the warning voices of law and duty, as well as public opinion, made him hesitate, and the cabinet adjourned without definite action. The position of the President was painful. He had evidently made pledges to the Confederates, without suspecting their disloyal schemes when he made them, and had filled his cabinet with disloyal men, supposing them to be honest. It is said that at that time he was in continual fear of assassination. On the morning after the cabinet meeting referred to, news came of the seizure of Fort Moultrie and Castle Pinckney. The President breathed more freely. The Confederates had committed the first act of war, and he felt relieved from his pledges. He peremptorily refused to order the withdrawal of Anderson from Sumter, and on the following day Floyd resigned the seals of Secretary of War and fled to Richmond. In his letter of resignation he said, respecting the secretaryship, "I can no longer hold office, under my convictions of patriotism, nor with honor, subjected as I am to a violation of solemn pledges." JOSEPH HOLT (*q. v.*), of Kentucky, a thoroughly loyal man, took Floyd's place, and a load of anxiety was lifted from the minds of the loyal people of the republic. The disruption of Buchanan's cabinet went on. Attorney-General Black had taken the place of General Cass as Secretary of State, and EDWIN M. STANTON (*q. v.*) filled the office of Attorney-General. Philip F. Thomas, of Maryland, had succeeded Cobb as Secretary of the Treasury, but, unwilling to assist the government in enforcing the laws, he was succeeded by JOHN A. DIX (*q. v.*), a stanch patriot of New York. The ex-President retired to private life March 4, 1861, and took up his abode at Wheatland, near Lancaster, Pa., where he died, June 1, 1868. Mr. Buchanan was an able lawyer, a good debater, and in private life, from his boyhood, his moral character was without reproach. He lived in troublous times, and his political career, towards the last, seems to have been shaped more by persistent politicians than by his own better impulses and judgment.

Prospects of Civil War.—On Jan. 8, 1861, President Buchanan sent the following message to the Congress, giving his views on the question of State's rights and the prospects of a civil war:

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

At the opening of your present session I called your attention to the dangers which threatened the existence of the Union. I expressed my opinion freely concerning the original causes of those dangers, and recommended such measures as I believed would have the effect of tranquillizing the country and saving it from the peril in which it had been needlessly and most unfortunately involved. Those opinions and recommendations I do not propose now to repeat. My own convictions upon the whole subject remain unchanged.

The fact that a great calamity was impending over the nation was even at that time acknowledged by every intelligent citizen. It had already made itself felt throughout the length and breadth of the land. The necessary consequences of the alarm thus produced were most deplor-

James Buchanan

able. The imports fell off with a rapidity never known before except in time of war, in the history of our foreign commerce; the Treasury was unexpectedly left without the means which it had reasonably counted upon to meet the public engagements; trade was paralyzed; manufactures were stopped; the best public securities suddenly sunk in the market; every species of property depreciated more or less, and thousands of poor men who depended upon their daily labor for their daily bread were turned out of employment.

I deeply regret that I am not able to give you any information upon the state of the Union which is more satisfactory than what I was then obliged to communicate. On the contrary, matters are still worse at present than they then were. When Congress met, a strong hope pervaded the whole public mind that some amicable adjustment of the subject would speedily be made by the representatives of the States and of the people which might restore peace between the conflicting sections of the country. That hope has been diminished by every hour of delay, and as the prospect of a bloodless settlement fades away the public distress becomes more and more aggravated. As evidence of this it is only necessary to say that the Treasury notes authorized by the act of Dec. 17 last were advertised according to the law, and that no responsible bidder offered to take any considerable sum at par at a lower rate of interest than 12 per cent. From these facts it appears that in a government organized like ours domestic strife, or even a well-grounded fear of civil hostilities, is more destructive to our public and private interests than the most formidable foreign war.

In my annual message I expressed the conviction, which I have long deliberately held, and which recent reflection has only tended to deepen and confirm, that no State has a right by its own act to secede from the Union or throw off its federal obligations at pleasure. I also declared my opinion to be that, even if that right existed and should be exercised by any State of the Confederacy, the executive department of this government had no authority under the Constitution to recognize its validity by acknowledging the independence of such State. This left me no alternative, as the chief executive officer under the Constitution of the United States, but to collect the public revenues and to protect the public property so far as this might be practicable under existing laws. This is still my purpose. My province is to execute and not to make the laws. It belongs to Congress exclusively to repeal, to modify, or to enlarge their provisions to meet exigencies as they may occur. I possess no dispensing power.

I certainly had no right to make aggressive war upon any State, and I am perfectly satisfied that the Constitution has wisely withheld that power even from Congress. But the right and the duty to use military force defensively against those who resist the federal officers in the execution of their legal functions and against those who assail the property of the federal government is clear and undeniable.

But the dangerous and hostile attitude of the States towards each other has already far transcended and cast in the shade the ordinary executive duties already provided for by law, and has assumed such vast and alarming proportions as to place the subject entirely above and beyond executive control. The fact cannot be disguised that we are in the midst of a great revolution. In all its various bearings, therefore, I commend the question to Congress as the only human tribunal under Providence possessing the power to meet the existing emergency. To them exclusively belongs the power to declare war or to authorize the employment of military force in all cases contemplated by the Constitution, and they alone possess the power to remove grievances which might lead to war and to secure peace and union to this distracted country. On them, and on them alone, rests the responsibility.

The Union is a sacred trust left by our Revolutionary fathers to their descendants, and never did any other people inherit so rich a legacy. It has rendered us prosperous in peace and triumphant in war. The national flag has floated in glory over every sea. Under its shadow American citizens have found protection and respect in all lands beneath the sun.

If we descend to considerations of purely material interest, when in the history of all time has a confederacy been bound together by such strong ties of mutual interest? Each portion of it is dependent on all, and all upon each portion, for prosperity and domestic security. Free trade throughout the whole supplies the wants of one portion from the productions of another, and scatters wealth everywhere. The great planting and farming States require the aid of the commercial and navigating States to send their productions to domestic and foreign markets, and to furnish the naval power to render their transportation secure against all hostile attacks.

Should the Union perish in the midst of the present excitement, we have already had a sad foretaste of the universal suffering which would result from its destruction. The calamity would be severe in every portion of the Union, and would be quite as great, to say the least, in the Southern as in the Northern States. The greatest aggravation of the evil, and that which would place us in the most unfavorable light both before the world and posterity, is, as I am firmly convinced, that the secession movement has been chiefly based upon a misapprehension at the South of the sentiments of the majority in several of the Northern States. Let the question be transferred from political assemblies to the ballot-box, and the people themselves would speedily redress the serious grievances which the South have suffered. But, in Heaven's name, let the trial be made before we plunge into armed conflict upon the mere assumption that there is no other alternative. Time is a great conservative power. Let us pause at this momentous point and afford the people, both North and South, an opportunity for reflection. Would that South Carolina had been convinced of this truth before her precipitate action! I therefore appeal through you to the people of the country to declare in their might that the Union must and shall be preserved by all constitutional means. I most earnestly recommend that you devote yourselves exclusively to the question how this can be accomplished in peace. All other questions, when compared to this, sink into insignificance. The present is no time for palliations. Action, prompt action, is required. A delay in Congress to prescribe or to recommend a distinct and practical proposition for conciliation may drive us to a point from which it will be almost impossible to recede.

A common ground on which conciliation and harmony can be produced is surely not unattainable. The proposition to compromise by letting the North have exclusive control of the territory above a certain line and to give Southern institutions protection below that line ought to receive universal approbation. In itself, indeed, it may not be entirely satisfactory; but when the alternative is between a reasonable concession on both sides and a destruction of the Union it is an imputation upon the patriotism of Congress to assert that its members will hesitate for a moment.

Even now the danger is upon us. In several of the States which have not yet seceded the forts, arsenals, and magazines of the United States have been seized. This is by far the most serious step which has been taken since the commencement of the troubles. This public property has long been left without garrisons and troops for its protection, because no person doubted its security under the flag of the country in any State of the Union. Besides, our small army has scarcely been sufficient to guard our remote frontiers against Indian incursions. The seizure of this property, from all appearances, has been purely aggressive, and not in resistance to any attempt to coerce a State or States to remain in the Union. At the beginning of these unhappy troubles I determined that no act of mine should increase the excitement in either section of the country. If the political conflict were to end in a civil war, it was my determined purpose not to commence it nor even to furnish an excuse for it by any act of this government. My opinion remains unchanged that justice as well as sound policy requires us still to seek a peaceful solution of the questions at issue between the North and the South. Entertaining this conviction, I refrained even from sending reinforcements to Major Anderson, who commanded the forts in Charleston Harbor, until an absolute necessity for doing so should make itself

apparent, lest it might unjustly be regarded as a menace of military coercion, and thus furnish, if not a provocation, at least a pretext, for an outbreak on the part of South Carolina. No necessity for these reinforcements seemed to exist. I was assured by distinguished and upright gentlemen of South Carolina that no attack upon Major Anderson was intended, but that, on the contrary, it was the desire of the State authorities as much as it was my own to avoid the fatal consequences which must eventually follow a military collision.

And here I deem it proper to submit for your information copies of a communication, dated Dec. 28, 1860, addressed to me by R. W. Barnwell, J. H. Adams, and James L. Orr, "commissioners" from South Carolina, with the accompanying documents, and copies of my answer thereto, dated Dec. 31.

In further explanation of Major Anderson's removal from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter, it is proper to state that after my answer to the South Carolina "commissioners" the War Department received a letter from that gallant officer, dated on Dec. 27, 1860, the day after this movement, from which the following is an extract:

"I will add as my opinion that many things convinced me that the authorities of the State designed to proceed to a hostile act."

Evidently referring to the orders, dated Dec. 11, of the late Secretary of War.

"Under this impression I could not hesitate that it was my solemn duty to move my command from a fort which we could not probably have held longer than forty-eight or sixty hours to this one, where my power of resistance is increased to a very great degree."

It will be recollected that the concluding part of these orders was in the following terms:

"The smallness of your force will not permit you, perhaps, to occupy more than one of the three forts, but an attack on or attempt to take possession of either one of them will be regarded as an act of hostility, and you may then put your command into either of them which you may deem most proper to increase its power of resistance. You are also authorized to take similar defensive steps whenever you have tangible evidence of a design to proceed to a hostile act."

It is said that serious apprehensions are to some extent entertained (in which I do not share) that the peace of this district may be disturbed before March 4 next. In any event, it will be my duty to preserve it, and this duty shall be performed.

In conclusion, it may be permitted to me to remark that I have often warned my countrymen of the dangers which now surround us. This may be the last time I shall refer to the subject officially. I feel that my duty has been faithfully, though it may be imperfectly, performed, and whatever the result may be, I shall carry to my grave the consciousness that I at least meant well for my country.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

Buchanan, ROBERT CHRISTIE, military officer; born in Maryland about 1810; was graduated at West Point in 1830; served in the Seminole War and the war with Mexico; and was made a lieutenant-colonel in 1861. He served in the Army of the Potomac continually during the Civil War, and was brevetted major-general United States Army in 1865. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 29, 1878.

Buckeye State, the popular name of the State of Ohio, derived from the buckeye, or horse-chestnut, tree which abounds there.

Buckingham, WILLIAM ALFRED, the "war governor of Connecticut"; born

WILLIAM ALFRED BUCKINGHAM

in Lebanon, Conn., May 28, 1804; engaged in business in Norwich in 1825, where he became a successful merchant and carpet manufacturer; and his generosity and public spirit endeared him to the people. He was elected governor every year from 1858 to 1866, when he declined a renomination. His patriotism, energy, popularity, and extensive influence were of inestimable service to the national government during its struggle for existence; and he was one of the most active of the "war governors" during the contest. In 1869 he was chosen to represent Connecticut in the Senate of the United States. A patron of education and a promoter of religion and public morals, he gave to the Theological School of Yale College $25,000 for the education of young men for the Gospel ministry. He died in Norwich, Conn., Feb. 3, 1875.

Buckland, CYRUS, inventor; born in Springfield, Mass., Aug. 10, 1799. After aiding in constructing the machinery for the first cotton mills, in Chicopee Falls, he became the pattern-maker of the United States armory, at Springfield, Mass., in 1828. He remained there for twenty-eight years, much of the time as master-mechanic. He remodelled old weapons, made new ones, and designed a lathe for the manufacture of gun-stocks. His inventions also included machinery and tools for the manufacture of fire-arms, for rifling muskets, etc. Many of these inventions were adopted by foreign countries. When ill-health forced him to resign Congress voted him $10,000, as he had received no compensation for his inventions while at the armory. He died in Springfield, Feb. 26, 1891.

Buckner, SIMON BOLIVAR, military officer; born in Kentucky in 1823; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1844; was Assistant Professor of Ethics there for two years, and then engaged in the war with Mexico, in which he was wounded, and brevetted captain. After that war he was again a tutor at West Point; resigned in 1855; practised law in Kentucky; and became one of the most prominent "KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE" (*q. v.*) in that State. After the Civil War began he became commander of the Kentucky State Guard, and adjutant-general of the State. He soon joined the Confederate army, and surrendered the fort and garrison of FORT DONELSON (*q. v.*) in February, 1862, when he was sent a prisoner to Fort Warren. After his release, he continued in the Confederate service until the close of the war. He became a lieutenant-general in the army; was selected by General Grant to be one of his pall-bearers; and was elected governor of Kentucky in 1887.

Bucktails. In the politics of the State of New York the TAMMANY SOCIETY (*q. v.*) held a conspicuous place as early as during the War of 1812–15. The Republican, or Democratic, party had been divided into two great factions, known as Madisonians and Clintonians, James Madison and De Witt Clinton being rival candidates for the office of President of the United States. Most of the Federalists voted for Clinton. The Tammany Society adhered to Madison. In the election of 1816 a portion of the members of the Tammany Society wore an emblem in their caps—a deer's tail—and they were called "Bucktails." This soon became the title of the Madisonians; and in 1816, when Clinton was elected governor of New York, the opposing parties in the State were known as "Bucktails" and "Clintonians." To one or the other of these parties portions of the disintegrated Republican, or Democratic, party became attached. Afterwards the Bucktail party was styled by its antagonists the ALBANY REGENCY (*q. v.*).

Buddington, SIDNEY OZIAS. See HALL, CHARLES FRANCIS.

Budget, a term applied to the English Chancellor of Exchequer's annual statement of the finances of the country, the documents having been formerly presented in a leather bag. In the United States the Secretary of the Treasury has made an annual report to Congress of receipts and expenditures of the government since 1790. In 1789 the House of Representatives appointed a committee to see that the government was supplied with sufficient revenues, and to devise ways and means for obtaining it, whence the name of "Ways and Means Committee." In 1865 the duties of this committee had become excessive, and a committee of appropriations was appointed to share the work. Estimates for appropriations are prepared by

the heads of the several departments and bureaus of the public service for the fiscal year ending June 30, but are often reduced by the House. No appropriations can be made for purposes not sanctioned by the Constitution. See APPROPRIATIONS, CONGRESSIONAL.

Buell, DON CARLOS, military officer; born near Marietta, O., March 23, 1818; was graduated at West Point in 1841; engaged in the war with Mexico, in which he won the brevets of captain and major, and was severely wounded; became lieutenant-colonel in the regular army, and brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861; major-general of volunteers in March, 1862; and, with an army, arrived on the battle-field of SHILOH (*q. v.*) in time to assist in the defeat of the Confederates. In command of the District of Ohio, he confronted Bragg's invasion of Kentucky and drove him out of the State. On Oct. 24 he transferred his command to General Rosecrans; was mustered out of the volunteer service May 23, 1864; and resigned his commission in the regular army June 1, 1865, when he became president of the Green River Iron Company, in Kentucky. He died near Rockport, Ky., Nov. 19, 1898.

Buena Vista, BATTLE OF. General Taylor received such instructions from the War Department that he declared (Nov. 13, 1846) the armistice granted at Monterey was at an end. General Worth marched, with 900 men, for Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila, and was followed the next day by Taylor, who left Gen. W. O. Butler, with some troops, to hold the conquered city of Monterey. Saltillo was taken possession of on Nov. 15. After several minor movements, and having been deprived of a large number of his troops by an order of General Scott to send them to reinforce an American army that was to attack Vera Cruz, Taylor was forced to act on the defensive with about 5,000 men. Informed that General Santa Ana (who had entered Mexico from his exile in Cuba, and had been elected President of Mexico in December) was gathering an army of 20,000 men at San Luis Potosi, Taylor resolved to form a junction with General Wool (who had entered Mexico with about 3,000 troops, crossing the Rio Grande at Presidio), and fight the Mexicans. He reached Saltillo with his little army on Feb. 2, 1847, joining Wool's forces there, and encamped at Aqua Nueva, 20 miles south of that place, on the San Luis road. On hearing of the approach of Santa Ana with his host, Taylor and Wool fell back to Angostura, a narrow defile in the mountains facing the fine estate of Buena Vista, and there encamped, in battle order, to await the coming of their foe. Santa Ana and his army were within two miles of Taylor's camp on the morning of Feb. 22, when the Mexican chief sent a note to Taylor telling him he was surrounded by 20,000 men, and could not, in all probability, avoid being cut to pieces; but as he held the American commander in special esteem, and wished to save him such a catastrophe, he gave him this notice, that he might surrender at discretion. He granted Taylor an hour to make a decision. It was soon made; for the commander immediately declined the polite invitation to surrender, and both armies prepared to fight. The Americans waited for the Mexicans to take the initiative. There was slight skirmishing all day, and that night the American troops bivouacked without fire and slept on their arms; the Mexicans, in the mountains, meanwhile trying to form a cordon of soldiers around the little army of Taylor and Wool, then less than 5,000 in number. The battle began early on the morning of the 23d, and continued all day. The struggle was terribly severe; the slaughter was fearful; and until near sunset it was doubtful who would triumph. Then the Mexican leader, performing the pitiful trick of displaying a flag of truce to throw Taylor off his guard, made a desperate assault on the American centre, where that officer was in command in person. The batteries of Bragg, Washington, and Sherman resisted the assault, and before long the Mexican line began to waver. Taylor, standing near one of the batteries, seeing this sign of weakness, said, quietly, "Give 'em a little more grape, Captain Bragg" (see BRAGG, BRAXTON). It was done, and just at twilight the Mexicans gave way and fled in considerable confusion. Night closed the battle. Expecting it would be resumed in the morning, the Americans again slept on their arms, but when the day dawned no enemy was to be

seen. Santa Ana had fallen back, and in a few days his utterly dispirited army was almost dissolved. In their flight the Mexicans had left about 500 of their comrades, dead or dying, on the field. With these and wounded and prisoners, their loss amounted to almost 2,000 men; that of the Americans, in killed, wounded, and missing, was 746. Among the slain was a son of Henry Clay. On the day of the battle Captain Webster, with a small party of Americans, drove General Minon and 800 Mexicans from Saltillo. Taylor returned to Walnut Springs, where he remained several months, and in the autumn of 1847 he returned home.

Buffalo, city, port of entry, and county seat of Erie county, N. Y.; at the eastern extremity of Lake Erie and the western extremity of the Erie Canal; area, 42 square miles; was laid out under the name of New Amsterdam by the Holland Land Company in 1801; incorporated as a town in 1810; and chartered as a city, April 20, 1832. The location of the city on the lake early gave it commercial importance. In 1805 Buffalo Creek was constituted a port of entry, and in 1811, Black Rock. It was at the latter place that the first steamboat on Lake Erie, the *Walk-in-the-Water,* was built and launched, May 28, 1818, and this vessel made the first trip between Buffalo and Detroit on Aug. 23 following. From this period and this trip Buffalo has made great progress in her commercial relations with the principal American and Canadian ports on the Great Lakes. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, the imports of foreign merchandise at the port of Buffalo Creek aggregated in value $4,933,319, and the exports of domestic merchandise, $22,592,340. The tonnage movement of the year was: Entrances: American sail, 174,858; steam, 95,949; foreign sail, 7,968; steam, 37,322—total sail, 182,826; steam, 133,271. Clearances: American sail, 174,010; steam, 100,492; foreign sail, 7,970; steam, 20,140—total sail, 181,980; steam, 120,632. The city has very large interests in the iron and steel industry, and an extensive commerce in grains, lumber, coal, flour, and live-stock, promoted by its exceptional rail and water communications. As a manufacturing centre also Buffalo has attained high rank. The census of 1900 credited the city with 3,902 manufacturing establishments, employing $103,939,655 capital and 43,422 wage-earners; paying $19,915,817 for wages and $73,359,466 for

THE PORT OF BUFFALO IN 1813.

material used; and yielding products valued at $122,230,061. The most important industries, according to value of products, were, wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing, $9,631,187; foundry and machine-shop work, $6,816,057; linseed oil, $6,271,170; railroad cars, $4,513,333; malt liquors, $4,269,973; and soap and candles, $3,818,571. Other important manufactures are flour, lumber, glucose, clothing, and leather. Official reports of municipal officers for 1903 showed that the city owned real estate of an estimated value of $13,679,762, and personal property, $11,274,298—total, $24,954,060, included in which was the water-works property, valued at $8,639,804. The resources of the city were reported at $29,568,994, and the liabilities at $18,391,451, showing an excess of resources of $11,175,543. The assessed valuations were: real estate, $233,066,365; personal property, $18,958,200—total, $252,024,565; city tax rate, $17.37 per $1,000. The net city debt on May 1, 1904, was $17,413,088. Population, (1880) 155,134; (1890) 255,664; (1900) 352,387.

General Riall, with his regulars and Indians, recrossed from Lewiston (see NIAGARA, FORT), when his forces had returned from the desolation of the New York frontier. Riall marched up from Queenston (Dec. 28) to Chippewa, Gen. Drummond in immediate command. By this time all western New York had been alarmed. McClure had appealed to the people to hasten to the frontier. Gen. Amos Hall called out the militia and invited volunteers. Hall took chief command of troops now gathered at Black Rock and Buffalo, 2,000 strong. From Drummond's camp, opposite Black Rock, Riall crossed the river (Dec. 30) with about 1,000 white men and Indians. The night was dark. They drove the Americans from Black Rock. The militia were alarmed, and at dawn Hall ascertained that 800 of them had deserted. Hall, with the rest of his force, proceeded to attack the invaders. He, too, had a force of Indians; but these, with more of the militia, soon gave way, and, the commander's force broken, he was in great peril. Deserted by a large portion of his troops, vastly outnumbered, and almost surrounded, Hall was compelled to retreat and leave Buffalo to its fate. It was presently in possession of the British and their Indian allies, who proceeded to plunder, destroy, and slaughter. Only four buildings were left standing in the village. At Black Rock only a single building escaped the flames. Four vessels which had done good service on Lake Erie—the *Ariel, Little Belt, Chippewa, and Trippe*—were burned; and so were completed the measures of retaliation for the burning of Newark. Six villages, many isolated country-houses, and four vessels were consumed, and the butchery of many innocent persons attested the fierceness of the revenge of the British. See PAN-AMERICAN EXHIBITION.

Buffalo Hill, BATTLE AT. On Oct. 4, 1861, there was a spirited engagement at Buffalo Hill, Ky., between the National and Confederate forces, in which the Nationals lost twenty killed, and the Confederates fifty. The organizations that took part in this engagement are not recorded.

Buffington, ADELBERT RINALDO, military officer; born in Wheeling, Va., Nov. 22, 1837; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1861, and commissioned brevet second lieutenant in the ordnance department; and was appointed chief of ordnance with the rank of brigadier-general in 1889. From 1881 till 1892 he was in charge of the national armory at Springfield, Mass. General Buffington is the inventor of a magazine fire-arm, carriages for light and heavy ordnance, and the nitre and manganese method for bluing iron and the steel surface of small-arms.

Buffington Island, BATTLE AT. On July 19, 1863, six regiments of Kentucky volunteers, three of Michigan, three of Ohio, one of Indiana, and one of Tennessee, comprising infantry and cavalry, together with several gunboats, had an engagement at Buffington Island, known also as St. George's Creek, O., which resulted in the capture of the Confederate raiders under JOHN H. MORGAN (*q. v.*).

Buford, ABRAHAM, military officer; born in Virginia; became colonel of the 11th Virginia Regiment, May 16, 1778. In May, 1780, when his command, hastening to the relief of Lincoln at Charleston, heard of his surrender, they returned towards North Carolina. Buford's command consisted of nearly 400 Continental infantry, a small detachment of Colonel

Washington's cavalry, and two field-pieces. He had reached Camden in safety, and was retreating leisurely towards Charlotte, when Colonel Tarleton, with 700 men, all mounted, sent in pursuit by Cornwallis, overtook Buford upon the Waxhaw Creek. Tarleton had marched 100 miles in fifty-four hours. With only his cavalry—the remainder were mounted infantry—he almost surrounded Buford before that officer was aware of danger, and demanded an instant surrender upon the terms given to the Americans at Charleston. These were too humiliating, and Buford refused compliance. While flags for the conference were passing and repassing, Tarleton, contrary to the rules of warfare, was making preparations for an attack in case of refusal. The instant he received Buford's reply, his cavalry made a furious charge upon the American ranks (May 29). The assailed troops were dismayed by an attack under such circumstances, and all was confusion. Some fired upon their assailants, others threw down their arms and begged for quarter. None was given, and men without arms were hewn to pieces by the sabres of Tarleton's cavalry. There were 113 slain; and 150 were so maimed as to be unable to travel, and fifty-three were made prisoners to grace the triumphal entry of the conqueror into Camden. Only five of the British were killed and fifteen wounded. All of Buford's artillery, ammunition, and baggage became spoil for the enemy. For this savage feat Cornwallis eulogized Tarleton, and commended him to the ministers as worthy of special favor. Afterwards, "Tarleton's quarter" became a proverbial synonym for cruelty. Stedman, one of Cornwallis's officers, and a historian of the war, wrote, "On this occasion the virtue of humanity was totally forgotten." Colonel Buford died in Scott county, Ky., June 29, 1833.

Buford, JOHN, military officer; born in Kentucky in 1825; was graduated at West Point in 1848; became captain in 1859; and inspector-general, with the rank of major, November, 1861. He commanded a brigade of cavalry under General Hooker, and was so severely wounded near the Rappahannock (August, 1862) that he was reported dead. In the battle of Antietam he was on General McClellan's staff. He was conspicuous in many engagements while in command of the reserve cavalry brigade, and he began the battle of GETTYSBURG (*q. v.*). He was chief of Burnside's cavalry, and was assigned to the command of the Army of the Cumberland just before his death in Washington, D. C., Dec. 16, 1863.—His half-brother, NAPOLEON BONAPARTE BUFORD (born in Woodford county, Ky., Jan. 13, 1807), was also graduated at West Point, and entered the artillery. He was a pupil in the Law School of Harvard University; Professor of Natural Philosophy at West Point; but retired to civil pursuits in 1835. Engaging first as colonel in the Union army in 1861, he served well during the continuance of the strife, and was brevetted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865. He died March 28, 1883.

Buford, NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, military officer; born in Woodford county, Ky., Jan. 13, 1807; was graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1827; and served for several years on surveying duty; subsequently resigning and entering civil life. When the Civil War broke out he was commissioned colonel of the 27th Illinois Volunteers; served through the war; was brevetted major-general of volunteers March 13, 1865. He died March 28, 1883.

Bulacan, a Philippine town on the island of Luzon, a few miles northwest of Manila. Its population is mostly native, and the town is chiefly engaged in sugar-boiling, although there are several other industrial plants. Bulacan was considered a place of considerable strategic importance by the Filipino insurgents after they had been driven from the immediate suburbs of Manila, and because of this fact was the scene of considerable military activity after the American troops began their remarkable chase after Aguinaldo. Early in 1900 the town was under complete American control, and a military post was established there.

Bull Run, BATTLES OF. The gathering of Confederate troops at MANASSAS JUNCTION (*q. v.*) required prompt and vigorous movements for the defence of Washington, D. C. Beauregard was there with the main Confederate army, and Gen. J. E. Johnston was at Winchester, in the

Shenandoah Valley, with a large body of troops, with which he might reinforce the former. Gen. Robert Patterson was at Martinsburg with 18,000 Nationals to keep Johnston at Winchester. Gen. Irvin McDowell was in command of the Department of Virginia, with his headquarters at Arlington House; and, at about the middle of July, 1861, he was ordered to move against the Confederates. With 20,000 troops he marched from Arlington Heights (July 16), for the purpose of flanking the Confederate right wing. A part of his troops under General Tyler had a severe battle with them at Blackburn's Ford (July 18), and were repulsed (see BLACKBURN'S FORD, BATTLE OF). McDowell found he could not flank the Confederates, so he proceeded to make a direct attack upon them, not doubting Patterson would be able to keep Johnston in the valley. On the morning of July 21, McDowell's forces were set in motion in three columns, one under General Tyler on the Warrenton road, to make a feigned attack, and the other two, commanded respectively by Generals Hunter and Heintzelman, taking a wide circuit more to the left, to cross Bull Run at different points and make a real attack on Beauregard's left wing, which was to be menaced by Tyler. The Confederate right was to be threatened by troops under Colonels Richardson and Davies, moving from Centreville. These movements were all executed, but with so much delay that it was nearly noon before the battle began.

Meanwhile the Confederates had made a movement unknown to McDowell. The Confederate government, just seated at Richmond, hearing of the movements of the Nationals, immediately ordered Johnston to hasten from the valley, and reinforce Beauregard. This was done at noon (July 20) with 6,000 fresh troops. Hunter's column crossed Bull Run at Sudley Church, led by General Burnside, with Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts troops. Soon after crossing, it encountered the Confederates, and a battle ensued in open fields. The batteries of Griffin and Reynolds were brought to bear by the Nationals. Only a small stream in a little vale separated the combatants. The Confederates were led by Colonel Evans. The contest raged most fiercely. Hard pressed, Evans's line began to waver, when General Bee advanced with fresh troops, and gave it strength. Then the National line began to tremble, when Col. Andrew Porter sent a battalion of regulars under Major Sykes to strengthen it. More fiercely the battle raged. General Hunter was severely wounded. Colonel Slocum, of the Rhode Island troops, was killed, when Sprague, the youthful governor of the commonwealth, took command of his troops. The wearied Nationals, who had been on their feet since midnight, began to flag, when they were reinforced by troops under Heintzelman, Sherman, and Corcoran. A charge made by a New York regiment, under COL. HENRY W. SLOCUM (*q. v.*), shattered the bending Confederate line, and the troops fled in confusion to a plateau whereon Gen. T. J. Jackson had just arrived with reserves. The flight was checked, and order was brought out of confusion.

Alarmed by this show of unsuspected strength in the Nationals, Johnston, who had arrived and taken the chief command, looked anxiously towards the mountain gaps through which he expected more of his troops from the Shenandoah Valley. Without these he had small hopes of success. There had been a lull in the conflict; and at 2 P.M. it was announced they were not in sight. At that time the Confederates had 10,000 soldiers and twenty-two heavy guns in battle order on the plateau. The Nationals proceeded to attempt to drive them from this vantage-ground. To accomplish this, five brigades—Porter's, Howard's, Franklin's, Wilcox's, and Sherman's—with the batteries of Ricketts, Griffin, and Arnold, and cavalry under Major Palmer, advanced to turn the Confederate left, while Keyes's brigade was sent to annoy them on their right. General Heintzelman accompanied McDowell as his lieutenant in the field, and his division began the attack. Ricketts and Griffin advanced with their troops, and planted their batteries on an elevation that commanded the whole plateau, with the immediate support of Ellsworth's Fire Zouaves, commanded by Colonel Farnham. To the left of these batteries, New York, Massachusetts, and Minnesota troops took a position. As the artillery and the Zouaves were advancing, they were sud-

denly attacked on the flank by Alabamians in ambush, and then by Stuart's Black Horse Cavalry in the rear, and the Zouaves recoiled. At that moment Heintzelman ordered up a Minnesota regiment to support the batteries, when the Confederates in overwhelming force delivered

BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

a fire on these guns that disabled them by prostrating the men. Both sides suffered dreadfully.

When Johnston heard of the slaughter, he exclaimed, "Oh, for four regiments!" It was now three o'clock. His wish was more than gratified. Just then he saw a cloud of dust in the direction of the Manassas Gap Railroad. It was a part of his troops, 4,000 strong, from the valley, under Gen. E. Kirby Smith. They were immediately ordered into action, when the Confederates, so reinforced, struck the Nationals a stunning blow, just as the latter were about to grasp the palm of victory. It was so unexpected, heavy, and overpowering that in fifteen minutes the Nationals were swept from the plateau. As regiment after regiment gave way, and hurried towards the turnpike in confusion, panic seized others, and at 4 P.M. the greater portion of the National army was flying across Bull Run towards Centreville—leaving behind them over 3,000 men, killed, wounded, or made prisoners. The Confederates lost over 2,000. The Nationals lost twenty-seven cannon, ten of which were captured on the field, and the remainder were abandoned in the flight to Centreville. They took only a single cannon in safety to Centreville. They also lost many small-arms and a large quantity of munitions of war, and medicine and hospital supplies. The Nationals were pursued some distance. Had the Confederates pressed on after the panic-stricken fugitives, the coveted prize of the national capital, with all its treasures, might have been won by them within twenty-four hours. Johnston had escaped from Patterson, reinforced Beauregard at a critical moment, and won a great victory through the forgetfulness of Lieutenant-General Scott, who had given Patterson positive directions not to move until he should receive further orders. These the commanding general *forgot to send!* Patterson knew of Johnston's movement, but his orders to wait were imperative. The first he heard of the disaster at Bull Run was through a morning paper from Philadelphia, on July 22.

The result of the battle was published with great exaggeration on both sides. It produced unbounded joy among the Confederates and their friends, and the loyal people were, at first, greatly depress-

ed by it. While the Confederates were elated beyond measure, by the evidence the battle seemed to give of their superior skill and courage, and thousands flocked to the standard of revolt from all parts of the Southern States, the loyalists were stunned by the great disaster, and the 75,000 men, whose three months' term of service was about to expire, were, for the moment, made eager to leave the field, and return home. The President of the Confederacy, who arrived at Manassas just after the victory, made an exultant speech at Richmond, now become its capital, and said to the multitude, when referring to the vanquished, with bitter scorn, "Never be haughty to the humble"; and predicted that the national capital would soon be in their possession. While the streets of Richmond were populous with prisoners from the vanquished army, and eager volunteers were pressing forward towards the camps of the victors at Manassas, the streets of Washington were crowded with a discomfited and disheartened soldiery, without leaders and without organization—the personification of the crushed hopes of the loyal people. Such was the sad picture of the situation of the republic, much exaggerated, which was presented to Europe in August, 1861. The intelligence was given first to Europe through *The Times* of London—the accredited exponent of the political and social opinions of the ruling class in England—by the pen of Dr. Russell, its war-correspondent in the United States. He did not see the battle, and his account was, in a great degree, a tale of the imagination. It excited among the ruling classes a derision of the government and loyal people of the United States, and gratified the opponents of republicanism. To them the ruin of the great republic of the west seemed to be a fact accomplished. English statesmen and journalists dogmatically asserted it, and deplored the folly and wickedness of the President and Congress in "waging war upon sovereign States," and attempting to hold in union, by force, a people who "had the right and the desire to withdraw from a hated fellowship." It was declared that "the bubble of democracy had burst." The London *Times* said (Aug. 13), "It is evident that the whole volunteer army of the Northern States is worthless as a military organization, . . . a screaming crowd"; and spoke of it as a collection of "New York rowdies and Boston abolitionists desolating the villages of Virginia."

The depression of spirits among the loyal people was, however, only momentary. Within a few days they were buoyant with faith and hope. There was a second uprising of the friends of free institutions more marvellous than the first. Volunteers flocked to the standard of the Stars and Stripes by thousands. The Confederates were amazed by the spectacle, and did not venture near the capital in force, where loyal regiments were continually arriving. Five days after the battle, Secretary Seward wrote to Minister Adams in London: "Our Army of the Potomac, on Sunday last, met a reverse equally severe and unexpected. For a day or two the panic which had produced the result was followed by a panic that seemed to threaten to demoralize the country. But that evil has ceased entirely. The result is already seen in a vigorous reconstruction upon a scale of greater magnitude and increased enthusiasm." The Pennsylvania reserves were transferred to the National army at Washington. The government and people were satisfied that a long and desperate struggle was before them, and they put forth most extraordinary energies to meet the crisis. On the contrary, when, the shouts of victory having died away, and the smoke of battle dissipated, the people of the Confederacy saw their victorious army immovable at Manassas and indisposed to follow up their triumph, they were filled with apprehensions, and a feeling akin to despondency took possession of the hearts of the Southern people.

The second battle of Bull Run (or Manassas) was fought on Aug. 29, 30, 1862, the fighting on the first day being sometimes called the battle of GROVETON (*q. v.*). On the morning after the battle at Groveton, Pope's army was greatly reduced. It had failed to prevent the unity of Lee's army, and prudence dictated its immediate flight across Bull Run, and even to the defences of Washington. But Pope determined to resume the battle the next morning. He had received no reinforcements or supplies since the 26th, and

had no positive assurance that any would be sent. He confidently expected rations and forage from McClellan at Alexandria (a short distance away), who was to supply them; and it was not until the morning of the 30th (August, 1862), when it was too late to retreat and perilous to stand still, that he received information that rations and forage would be sent as soon as he (Pope) should send a cavalry escort for the train—a thing impossible. He had no alternative but to fight. Both commanders had made dispositions for attack in the morning. Lee's movements gave Pope the impression that the Confederates were retreating, and he ordered McDowell to pursue with a large force, Porter's forces to advance and attack them, and Heintzelman and Reno, supported by Ricketts's division, were ordered to assail and turn the Confederate left. This movement, when attempted, revealed a state of affairs fearful to the National army. The latter, as their advance moved forward, were opened upon by a fierce fire of cannon, shot, shell, and bullets, and at the same moment a large number of Lee's troops were making a flank movement that might imperil the whole of Pope's army. A very severe battle soon occurred. Porter's corps, which had recoiled at the unexpected blow, was rallied, and performed specially good service; and Jackson's advanced line was steadily pushed back until five o'clock in the afternoon, when Longstreet turned the tide of battle by pouring a destructive artillery fire upon the Nationals. Line after line was swept away, and very soon the whole left was put to flight. Jackson advanced, and Longstreet pushed his heavy columns against Pope's centre, while the Confederate artillery was doing fearful execution. The left of the Nationals, though pushed back, was unbroken, and held the Warrenton pike, by which alone Pope's army might safely retreat. Pope had now no alternative but to fall back towards the defences at Washington. At eight o'clock in the evening he gave orders to that effect. This movement was made during the night, across Bull Run, to the heights of Centreville, the brigades of Meade and Seymour covering the retreat. The night was very dark, and Lee did not pursue; and in the morning (Aug. 31) Bull Run again divided the two great armies. So ended the second battle of Bull Run.

Bulwer-Clayton Treaty. See CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.

Bummers, SHERMAN'S, a derisive name applied in the South to the army under General Sherman, which made the memorable march from Atlanta to the sea. See SHERMAN, WILLIAM TECUMSEH.

Buncombe, mere talk, or speaking for the gratification of constituents. It is said the word received this meaning from a remark of Felix Walker, representative to Congress from North Carolina, 1817–23. While making a speech in the Missouri compromise debates with little relevancy, as the House thought, he asserted it did not matter, as he was "making a speech for Buncombe," one of the counties he represented.

Bunker Hill, BATTLE OF. By reinforcements from England and Ireland, General Gage's army in Boston, at the close of May, 1775, was 10,000 strong. With the reinforcements came Gens. William Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, and John Burgoyne, three officers experienced in the military tactics of Europe, but little prepared for service in America. Thus strengthened, Gage issued a proclamation (June 12) of martial law, and offering pardon to all who should return to their allegiance, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock. At that time the New England army before Boston numbered about 16,000 men, divided into thirty-six regiments, of which Massachusetts furnished twenty-seven, and the other three New England colonies three each. John Whitcomb, a colonel in the French and Indian War, and Joseph Warren, president of the Provincial Congress, were appointed (June 15) major-generals of the Massachusetts forces. These provincial troops completely blockaded Boston on the land side, and effectively held the British troops as prisoners on the peninsula. Gen. Artemas Ward, the military head of Massachusetts, was regarded, by common consent, as the commander-in-chief of this New England army. The Americans had thrown up only a few breastworks—a small redoubt at Roxbury, and some breastworks at the foot of Prospect Hill, in Cambridge. The right wing of the besieging army, under

VIEWING THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL

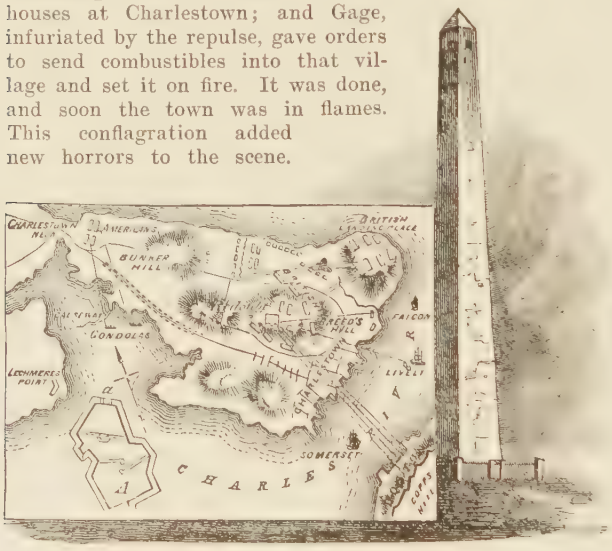
Gen. John Thomas, was at Roxbury, consisting of 4,000 Massachusetts troops, four artillery companies, a few field-pieces, and some heavy cannon. The Rhode Island forces were at Jamaica Plain, under General Greene, with a regiment of Connecticut troops under General Spencer. General Ward commanded the left wing at Cambridge. The Connecticut and New Hampshire troops were in the vicinity.

It was made known to the committee of safety that General Gage had fixed upon the night of the 18th of June to sally out and take possession of and fortify Bunker Hill (an elevation not far from Charlestown); also Dorchester Heights, south of Boston. Both of these points would command the town. The eager provincials determined to anticipate this movement, and the Massachusetts committee of safety ordered Col. William Prescott to march, on the evening of the 16th, with 1,000 men, including a company of artillery, with two field-pieces, to take possession of and fortify Bunker Hill. This force, after a prayer by President Langdon, of Harvard, passed over Charlestown Neck; but, going by Bunker Hill, they ascended Breed's Hill (much nearer Boston), where they had a better command of the town and the shipping. They had been joined on the way by Major Brooks and General Putnam, and by wagons laden with intrenching tools. The patriot troops worked incessantly all night under the skilful engineer Gridley, and at dawn a redoubt about 8 rods square, flanked on the right by a breastwork which extended northwardly to marshy land, met the bewildered and astonished gaze of the sentinels on the British shipping in the Charles River. The guns of their vessels were immediately brought to bear upon the redoubt on Breed's Hill, and the noise of the cannonade aroused the sleepers in Boston. The Americans on Breed's Hill continued their work until eleven o'clock on that very hot June morning, under an incessant shower of shot and shell, with a scanty supply of provisions, after having worked all night. Putnam had removed the intrenching tools at noon to Bunker Hill for the purpose of casting up intrenchments there, and the right flank of Prescott was strengthened by a few reinforcements thrown into Charlestown at the southern slope of the hill. On the left a fortification against musket-balls, composed of a rail-fence and new-mown hay, was hastily constructed, almost at the moment of attack.

The British clearly saw their impending danger, and, to thwart it, picked corps of their army, 3,000 strong, led by Generals Howe and Pigot, embarked in boats from the wharves in Boston, and landed at the eastern base of Breed's Hill. Meanwhile the troops who had worked all night and half of a hot June day in throwing up intrenchments on Breed's Hill were not relieved by others, as they should have been. Colonel Prescott, at first, did not believe the British would attack his redoubt; and when he saw the movement in the town he felt assured that he could easily repulse any assailants, and it was nine o'clock before he applied to General Ward for reinforcements. Putnam had urged, early in the morning, the sending of troops. Ward, believing Cambridge to be the point of attack, would not consent to sending more than a part of Stark's New Hampshire regiment at first. Finally, the remainder was sent; also, the whole of Colonel Reed's regiment on Charlestown Neck was ordered to reinforce Prescott. General Putnam was on the field, but without troops or command. The same was the case with General Warren, who hastened to the scene of action when the conflict began. Stark's regiment took a position on the left of the unfinished breastwork, but 200 yards in the rear, and under imperfect cover, made by pulling up a rail-fence, making parallel lines with the rails, and filling the intervening spaces with new-mown hay.

At a little past three o'clock in the afternoon Howe's great guns moved towards the redoubt and opened fire upon the works. They were followed by the troops in two columns, commanded respectively by Howe and Pigot. The guns on the British ships, and a battery on Copp's Hill, in Boston, hurled random shots in abundance on the Americans on Breed's Hill. The occupants of the redoubt kept silent until the enemy had approached very near, when, at the word "Fire!" 1,500 of the concealed patriots suddenly arose and

poured such a destructive storm of bullets upon the climbers of the green slope that whole platoons, and even companies were prostrated. Flags fell to the ground like tall lilies in a meadow. The assailants fell back to the shore, and a shout of triumph went up from the redoubt. Some scattering shots had come from the houses at Charlestown; and Gage, infuriated by the repulse, gave orders to send combustibles into that village and set it on fire. It was done, and soon the town was in flames. This conflagration added new horrors to the scene.



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT AND PLAN OF BATTLE.*

The British again advanced, and were again driven back to their landing-place. Then General Clinton passed over from Boston to aid Howe and Pigot, and the troops were led to the assault a third time. The powder of the provincials, scanty at the beginning, now failed. Some British artillery planted pieces near the breastwork and swept it from end to end, while grenadiers assailed the redoubt on three sides at once and carried it at the point of the bayonet. Stark, meanwhile, had kept the British at bay at the rail-fence until the redoubt was carried, after which all of the surviving provincials fled in good order across Charlestown Neck, enfiladed by the fire from the vessels and floating batteries on the Charles River, but received very little hurt. Of the 3,000 British troops engaged in the fight, 1,054 were killed or wounded—a proportionate loss which few battles can show. The loss of the provincials was 450, killed and wounded. Among the former was General Warren, whose loss was irreparable. He came to the redoubt without command, and did not take it from Prescott. He fell, as he was leaving the redoubt, from the effects of a bullet-wound.

The result of the battle was a substantial victory for the Americans. They failed only because their ammunition failed. It tested the ability of the provincial army to meet a British force in the field; and so unsatisfactory was the battle to the British ministry, that Gage was superseded in command by General Howe. The general impression at the time was that the battle was on Bunker Hill, and so it figures in history as the "Battle of Bunker Hill." It was fought on Breed's Hill, some distance from the former. The battle was seen by thousands who were on the neighboring hills and the roofs and balconies in Boston. The battle lasted about two hours.

Bunker Hill Monument. The corner-stone of this monument was laid on the fiftieth anniversary of the battle (June 17, 1825), in the presence of a vast multitude of people. Lafayette, then on a visit to the United States, was present, and Daniel Webster delivered an oration. The monument is an obelisk, and stands in the centre of the ground, on Breed's Hill, included in the old breastwork. Its sides are precisely parallel with those of the redoubt. It is built of Quincy granite, and is 221 feet in height. The base of the obelisk is 30 feet square, and at the spring of the apex 15 feet. By a flight

* On the right of the plan of the battle is seen a picture of the granite obelisk erected over the site of the redoubt. The form of the redoubt is seen in the diagram A in the map. The entrance to it was at *a*, which was on the end towards Charlestown Neck.

of 295 stone steps, within the obelisk, its top may be reached. A chamber at the top has four windows, with iron shutters. The monument was not completed until 1843, when, on June 17, it was dedicated in the presence of President Tyler and his cabinet and a vast multitude of citizens. The city of Charlestown, subsequently annexed to Boston, now surrounds the monument.

Burbeck, HENRY, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., June 8, 1754; served with distinction in the Revolutionary War; took part in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, Monmouth, etc., receiving the brevet of brigadier-general in 1813. He died in New London, Conn., Oct. 2, 1848.

Burchard, SAMUEL DICKINSON, clergyman; born in Steuben, N. Y., Sept. 6, 1812; was graduated at Centre College, Danville, Ky., in 1836; became a temperance lecturer and later a Presbyterian minister in New York. In 1884, near the close of the Presidential campaign, he unexpectedly brought himself into notoriety by speaking of the Democrats at the close of an address to a party of Republicans as the party of "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion." These words were scarcely uttered before the leaders of the Democratic party published them throughout the country. The election was very close, and it was several days before the official count of New York State was received. That State went Democratic by a small majority. The remark of Dr. Burchard was said to have influenced many thousands of votes, and to have lost the election to Mr. Blaine. He died in Saratoga, N. Y., Sept. 25, 1891.

Burden, HENRY, inventor; born in Dumblane, Scotland, April 20, 1791; lived on a farm, and early in life evinced his inventive taste by designing a variety of labor-saving machinery. In 1819 he came to the United States, and first engaged in the manufacture of farming implements. Afterwards he designed machines for making horse-shoes and the hook-headed spikes used on railroads; an improved plough; an automatic machine for rolling iron into bars; the first cultivator made in the United States; and a machine which received a rod of iron and turned out horse-shoes at the rate of sixty a minute. He died in Troy, N. Y., Jan. 19, 1871.

Burgesses, HOUSE OF, the name given to the collected representatives of boroughs in Virginia when representative government was first established there under the administration of Governor Yeardly. That body was elected by the people, and at first consisted of two representatives from seven corporations. These, with the governor and council, formed the General Assembly of Virginia. That general form of government was maintained until that colony became an independent State in 1776. That first House of Burgesses assembled at Jamestown in July, 1619, and by the end of summer four more boroughs were established and representatives chosen. The character of the *personnel* of that popular branch of the Virginia legislature for many years was sometimes severely criticised by contemporary writers. A clergyman who lived there wrote that the popular Assembly was composed largely of those unruly men whom King James had sent over from the English prisons as servants for the planters, and were not only vicious, but very ignorant. These men (Stith, an accurate historian, observes) disgraced the colony in the eyes of the world. Finally better material found its way into the House of Burgesses; and when the old war for independence was kindling, some of the brightest and purest men in the commonwealth composed that House, and were the conservators of the rights of man in Virginia as opposed to the governor and his council.

Burgoyne, SIR JOHN, military officer; born in England, Feb. 24, 1723; was liberally educated, and entered the army at an early age. While a subaltern he clandestinely married a daughter of the Earl of Derby, who subsequently aided him in acquiring military promotion and settled $1,500 a year upon him. He served with distinction in Portugal in 1762. The year before, he was elected to Parliament, and gained his seat as representative of another borough, in 1768, at an expense of about $50,000. In the famous *Letters of Junius* he was severely handled. Being appointed to command in America, he arrived at Boston May 25, 1775; and to Lord Stanley he wrote a letter, giving a graphic

account of the battle on Bunker (Breed's) Hill. In December, 1776, he returned to England, and was commissioned lieutenant-general. Placed in command of the British forces in Canada, he arrived there early in 1777, and in June he began an invasion of the province of New York by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson Valley.

SIR JOHN BURGOYNE.

He left St. Johns on the Sorel (June, 1777) with a brilliant and well-appointed army of 8,000 men, and ascended Lake Champlain in boats. At the falls of the Bouquet River, near the western shore of the lake, he met about 400 Indians in council, and after a feast (June 21, 1777) he made a stirring speech to them. On July 1 he appeared before Ticonderoga, which was inadequately garrisoned. General St. Clair, in command there, was compelled to evacuate the post, with Mount Independence opposite (July 5 and 6), and fly towards Fort Edward, on the upper Hudson, through a portion of Vermont. In a battle at HUBBARDTON (*q. v.*) the Americans were beaten and dispersed by the pursuing British and Germans. St. Clair had sent stores in boats to Skenesboro (afterwards Whitehall), at the head of the lake. These were overtaken and destroyed by the pursuing British. Burgoyne pressed forward almost unopposed, for the American forces were very weak. The latter retreated first to Fort Edward, and then gradually down the Hudson almost to Albany. The British advanced but slowly, for the Americans, under the command of Gen. Philip Schuyler, harassed them at every step. An expedition sent by Burgoyne to capture stores and cattle, and procure horses in this region and at Bennington, Vt., was defeated in a battle at Hoosick, N. Y. (Aug. 16), by a force hastily gathered under General Stark.

Already another invading force of British regulars, Canadians, Tories, and Indians, under Colonel St. Leger, which was sent by Burgoyne, by way of Oswego, to march down the Mohawk Valley and meet the latter at Albany, had been defeated in a battle at Oriskany (Aug. 6). Schuyler was superseded by Gates in command of the northern army. Gates formed a fortified camp on Bemis's Heights to oppose the onward march of Burgoyne down the Hudson Valley. There he was attacked (Sept

BURGOYNE ADDRESSING THE INDIANS.

VIEW OF THE ENCAMPMENT OF THE CONVENTION TROOPS.

19) by the British; and, after a severe battle, the latter retired to their camp on the heights of Saratoga (afterwards Schuylerville) to await the approach of Sir Henry Clinton from New York. The latter captured forts on the Hudson Highlands, and sent marauding expeditions up the river that burned Kingston. Again Burgoyne advanced to attack Gates. He was defeated (Oct. 7), and again retired to his camp. Finding it impossible to retreat, go forward, or remain quiet, he surrendered his whole army, Oct. 17, 1777. See BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.

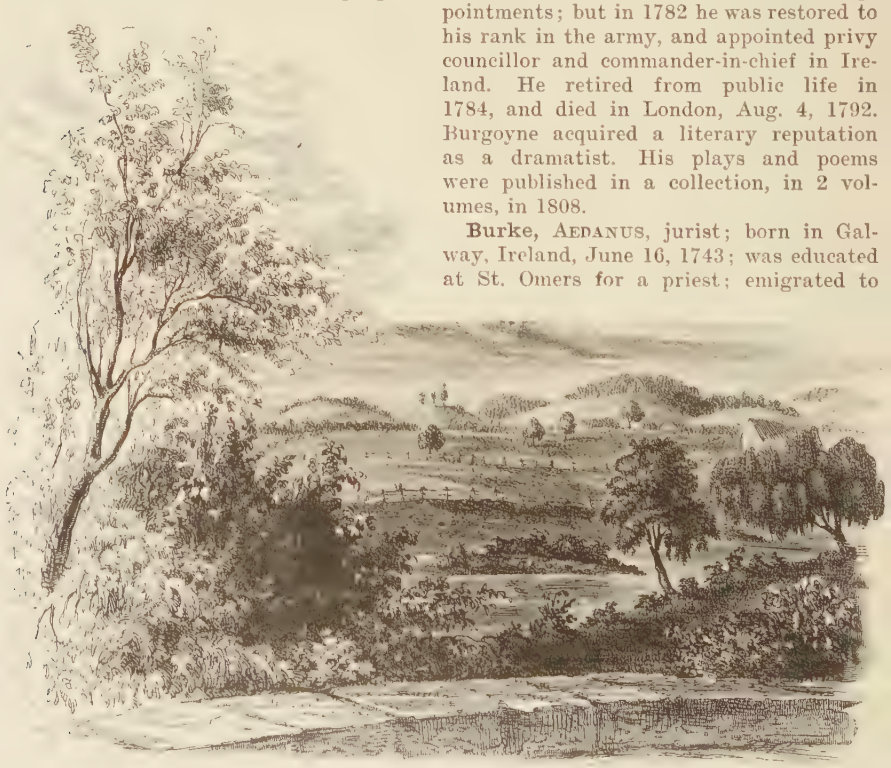
The vanquished troops made prisoners to the Americans by a convention for the surrender of them, made by Gates and Burgoyne, were marched through New England to Cambridge, near Boston, to be embarked for Europe. The Congress had ratified the agreement of Gates that they should depart, on giving their parole not to serve again in arms against the Americans. Circumstances soon occurred that convinced Washington that Burgoyne and his troops intended to violate the agreement at the first opportunity, and it was resolved by the Congress not to allow them to leave the country until the British government should ratify the terms of the capitulation. Here was a dilemma. That government would not recognize the authority of the Congress as a lawful body; so the troops were allowed to remain in idleness in America four or five years. Burgoyne, alone, was allowed to go home on his parole. The British ministry charged the Congress with absolute perfidy; the latter retorted, and justified their acts by charging the ministry with *meditated* perfidy. Owing to the difficulty of finding an adequate supply of food for the captive troops in New England, the Congress finally determined to send them to Virginia. Commissioners sent over, in the spring of 1778, to tender a scheme of reconciliation, offered a ratification of the convention, signed by themselves; but Congress would recognize no authority inferior to the British ministry for such an act. Finally, in pursuance of a resolution of Congress (Oct. 15, 1778), the whole body of the captives (4,000 in number), English and German, after the officers had signed a parole of honor respecting their conduct on the way, took up their line of march, early in November, for Charlottesville, Va., under the command of Major-General Phillips. Col. Theodoric Bland was appointed by Washington to superintend the march. It was a dreary winter's journey of 700 miles through New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The routes of the two nationalities were sometimes distant from each other, and sometimes the same, until they reached Valley Forge, when they went in the same line until they had crossed the Potomac River. They remained in Virginia until October, 1780, when the danger that the captives might rise upon and overpower

their guard caused the British to be removed to Fort Frederick, in Maryland, and the Germans to Winchester, in the Shenandoah Valley. Deaths, desertion, and partial exchanges had then reduced their number to about 2,100. Afterwards they were removed to Lancaster, Pa., and some to East Windsor, Conn. In the course of 1782 they were all dispersed, either by exchange or desertion. Many of the Germans remained in America.

The disaster to Burgoyne's army produced a profound sensation in England. This was intensified by indications that France was disposed to acknowledge the independence of the colonies. Efforts were made to supply the place of the lost troops by fresh recruits. Liverpool and Manchester undertook to raise each 1,000 men, and efforts were made to induce London to follow the example. The new lord mayor worked zealously for that purpose, but failed, and the ministry had to be content with a subscription of $100,000 raised among their adherents. Nor did the plan succeed in the English counties. In Scotland it was more successful; Glasgow and Edinburgh both raised a regiment, and several more were enlisted in the Scotch Highlands by the great landholders of that region, to whom the appointment of the officers was conceded. The surrender created despondency among the English Tories, and Lord North, the Prime Minister, was alarmed.

Burgoyne returned to England, on his parole, May, 1778. Being blamed, he solicited in vain for a court-martial to try his case, but he ably vindicated himself on the floor of Parliament, and published (1780) a narrative of his campaign in America for the same purpose. He joined the opposition, and an ineffectual attempt was made in 1779 to exclude him from Parliament. Then he resigned all his appointments; but in 1782 he was restored to his rank in the army, and appointed privy councillor and commander-in-chief in Ireland. He retired from public life in 1784, and died in London, Aug. 4, 1792. Burgoyne acquired a literary reputation as a dramatist. His plays and poems were published in a collection, in 2 volumes, in 1808.

Burke, Aedanus, jurist; born in Galway, Ireland, June 16, 1743; was educated at St. Omers for a priest; emigrated to

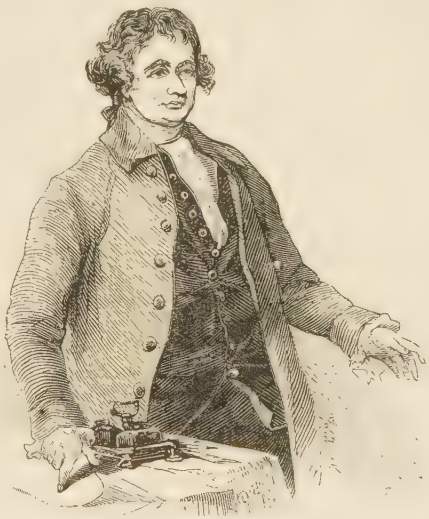


VIEW OF THE PLACE WHERE THE BRITISH LAID DOWN THEIR ARMS.

South Carolina, and there engaged with the patriots in their conflict with Great Britain. He was a lawyer, and in 1778 was made a judge of the Supreme Court of South Carolina. He served two years in the army; was in Congress (1789–91); and after serving in the State legislature, he became chancellor of the commonwealth. He died in Charleston, S. C., March 3, 1802. Judge Burke was a thorough republican, and wrote a famous pamphlet against the CINCINNATI SOCIETY (*q. v.*) that was translated into French by Mirabeau, and used by him with much effect during the French Revolution. Burke opposed its aristocratic features. He also opposed the national Constitution, fearing consolidated power.

BURKE, EDMUND

Burke, EDMUND, statesman; born in Dublin, June 1, 1730; was one of fifteen children of Richard Burke, an attorney, and was descended from the Norman De Burghs, who early settled in Ireland; graduated at Trinity College, Dublin (1748); studied law, and in 1756 published his famous essay on *The Sublime and Beautiful.* In 1758–59 he and Dodsley established the *Annual Register;* and in 1765 he was made secretary to Premier Rockingham. He entered Parliament in 1766. There he took an active and brilliant part in debates on the American question, and always in favor of the Americans, advocating their cause with rare eloquence. In 1771 he was appointed agent for the colony of New York. He lost some popularity by advocating the claims of the Roman Catholics in 1780, and opposing the policy of repressing the trade of Ireland. During the brief administration of the Rockingham ministry in 1782, he was a member of the privy council and paymaster of the forces. Taking a prominent part in the affairs in India, he began the prosecution of Gov. Warren Hastings early in 1786. His labors in behalf of India in that protracted trial were immense, though the conviction of Hastings was not effected. His great work entitled *Reflections on the Revolution in France* appeared in 1790. As a statesman and thinker and clear writer he had few superiors. His conversational powers were remarkable, and he was one of the suspected authors of the *Letters of Junius.* He died in Beaconsfield, England, July 9, 1797.



EDMUND BURKE.

Conciliation with the Colonies.—Burke's great conciliatory speech in the British Parliament, on March 22, 1775, was based on the following proposals which he had previously introduced:

That the colonies and plantations of Great Britain in North America, consisting of fourteen separate governments, and containing 2,000,000 and upward of free inhabitants, have not had the liberty and privilege of electing and sending any knights and burgesses, or others, to represent them in the high court of Parliament.

That the said colonies and plantations have been made liable to, and bounden by, several subsidies, payments, rates, and taxes, given and granted by Parliament; though the said colonies and plantations have not their knights and burgesses in the said high court of Parliament, of their

own election, to represent the condition of their country; by lack whereof they have been oftentimes touched and grieved by subsidies given, granted, and assented to, in the said court, in a manner prejudicial to the commonwealth, quietness, rest, and peace, of the subjects inhabiting within the same.

That, from the distance of the said colonies, and from other circumstances, no method hath hitherto been devised for procuring a representation in Parliament for the said colonies.

That each of the said colonies hath within itself a body, chosen, in part or in the whole, by the freemen, freeholders, or other free inhabitants thereof, commonly called the general assembly, or general court; with powers legally to raise, levy, and assess, according to the several usages of such colonies, duties and taxes towards defraying all sorts of public services.

That the said general assemblies, general courts, or other bodies, legally qualified as aforesaid, have at sundry times freely granted several large subsidies and public aids for his Majesty's service, according to their abilities, when required thereto by letter from one of his Majesty's principal secretaries of state; and that their right to grant the same, and their cheerfulness and sufficiency in the said grants, have been at sundry times acknowledged by Parliament.

That it hath been found by experience, that the manner of granting the said supplies and aids, by the said general assemblies, hath been more agreeable to the inhabitants of the said colonies, and more beneficial and conductive to the public service, than the mode of giving and granting aids and subsidies in Parliament to be raised and paid in the said colonies.

That it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the seventh year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for granting certain duties in the British colonies and plantations in America; for allowing a drawback of the duties of customs, upon the exportation from this kingdom, of coffee and cocoa-nuts, of the produce of the said colonies or plantations; for discontinuing the drawbacks payable on China earthenware exported to America; and for more effectually preventing the clandestine running of goods in the said colonies and plantations.

That it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act to discontinue, in such manner, and for such time, as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading or shipping of goods, wares, and merchandise, at the town, and within the harbour, of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in North America.

That it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for the impartial administration of justice, in cases of persons questioned for any acts done by them in the execution of the law, or for the suppression of riots and tumults, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England.

That it is proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for the better regulating the government of the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England.

That it is proper to explain and amend an act made in the thirty-fifth year of the reign of King Henry VIII., intituled, An act for the trial of treasons committed out of the king's dominions.

That, from the time when the general assembly, or general court, of any colony or plantation, in North America, shall have appointed, by act of assembly duly confirmed, a settled salary to the offices of the chief-justice and judges of the superior courts, it may be proper that the said chief-justice and other judges of the superior courts of such colony shall hold his and their office and offices during their good behaviour; and shall not be removed therefrom, but when the said removal shall be adjudged by his Majesty in council, upon a hearing on complaint from the general assembly, or on a complaint from the governor, or council, or the House of Representatives, severally, of the colony in which the said chief-justice and other judges have exercised the said office.

That it may be proper to regulate the courts of admiralty, or vice-admiralty, authorized by the fifteenth chapter of the fourth of George III., in such a manner, as to make the same more commodious to

those who sue, or are sued, in the said courts; and to provide for the more decent maintenance of the judges of the same.

Burke's Speech on Conciliation. — I hope, sir, that, notwithstanding the austerity of the chair, your good-nature will incline you to some degree of indulgence towards human frailty. You will not think it unnatural, that those who have an object depending, which strongly engages their hopes and fears, should be somewhat inclined to superstition. As I came into the House full of anxiety about the event of my motion, I found, to my infinite surprise, that the grand penal bill, by which we had passed sentence on the trade and sustenance of America, is to be returned to us from the other House. I do confess, I could not help looking on this event as a fortunate omen. I look upon it as a sort of providential favour; by which we are put once more in possession of our deliberative capacity, upon a business so very questionable in its nature, so very uncertain in its issue. By the return of this bill, which seemed to have taken its flight forever, we are at this very instant nearly as free to choose a plan for our American government as we were on the first day of the session. If, sir, we incline to the side of conciliation, we are not at all embarrassed (unless we please to make ourselves so) by any incongruous mixture of coercion and restraint. We are therefore called upon, as it were by a superior warning voice, again to attend to America; to attend to the whole of it together; and to review the subject with an unusual degree of care and calmness.

Surely it is an awful subject; or there is none so on this side of the grave. When I first had the honour of a seat in this House, the affairs of that continent pressed themselves upon us, as the most important and most delicate object of parliamentary attention. My little share in this great deliberation oppressed me. I found myself a partaker in a very high trust; and having no sort of reason to rely on the strength of my natural abilities for the proper execution of that trust, I was obliged to take more than common pains to instruct myself in everything which relates to our colonies. I was not less under the necessity of forming some fixed ideas concerning the general policy of the British Empire. Something of this sort seemed to be indispensable; in order, amidst so vast a fluctuation of passions and opinions, to concentrate my thoughts; to ballast my conduct; to preserve me from being blown about by every wind of fashionable doctrine. I really did not think it safe, or manly, to have fresh principles to seek upon every fresh mail which should arrive from America. At that period I had the fortune to find myself in perfect concurrence with a large majority in this House. Bowing under that high authority, and penetrated with the sharpness and strength of that early impression, I have continued ever since, without the least deviation, in my original sentiments. Whether this be owing to an obstinate perseverance in error, or to a religious adherence to what appears to me truth and reason, it is in your equity to judge.

Sir, Parliament having an enlarged view of objects, made, during this interval, more frequent changes in their sentiments and their conduct, than could be justified in a particular person upon the contracted scale of private information. But though I do not hazard anything approaching to censure on the motives of former parliaments to all those alterations, one fact is undoubted, that under them the state of America has been kept in continual agitation. Everything administered as remedy to the public complaint, if it did not produce, was at least followed by, an heightening of the distemper; until, by a variety of experiments, that important country has been brought into her present situation; a situation which I will not miscall, which I dare not name; which I scarcely know how to comprehend in the terms of any description.

In this posture, sir, things stood at the beginning of the session. About that time, a worthy member of great parliamentary experience, who, in the year 1766, filled the chair of the American committee, with much ability, took me aside; and, lamenting the present aspect of our politics, told me, things were come to such a pass, that our former methods of proceeding in the House would be no longer tolerated. That the public tribunal (never

too indulgent to a long and unsuccessful opposition) would now scrutinize our conduct with unusual severity. That the very vicissitudes and shiftings of ministerial measures, instead of convicting their authors of inconstancy and want of system, would be taken as an occasion of charging us with a predetermined discontent, which nothing could satisfy; whilst we accused every measure of vigour as cruel, and every proposal of lenity as weak and irresolute. The public, he said, would not have patience to see us play the game out with our adversaries; we must produce our hand. It would be expected that those who for many years had been active in such affairs should show that they had formed some clear and decided idea of the principles of colony government; and were capable of drawing out something like a platform of the ground which might be laid for future and permanent tranquillity.

I felt the truth of what my honourable friend represented; but I felt my situation too. His application might have been made with far greater propriety to many other gentlemen. No man was indeed ever better disposed, or worse qualified, for such an undertaking, than myself. Though I gave so far in to his opinion, that I immediately threw my thoughts into a sort of parliamentary form, I was by no means equally ready to produce them. It generally argues some degree of natural impotence of mind, or some want of knowledge of the world, to hazard plans of government except from a seat of authority. Propositions are made, not only ineffectually, but somewhat disreputably, when the minds of men are not properly disposed for their reception; and for my part, I am not ambitious of ridicule; not absolutely a candidate for disgrace.

Besides, sir, to speak the plain truth, I have in general no very exalted opinion of the virtue of paper government; nor of any politics in which the plan is to be wholly separated from the execution. But when I saw that anger and violence prevailed every day more and more, and that things were hastening towards an incurable alienation of our colonies, I confess my caution gave way. I felt this, as one of those few moments in which decorum yields to a higher duty. Public calamity is a mighty leveller; and there are occasions when any, even the slightest, chance of doing good, must be laid hold on, even by the most inconsiderable person.

To restore order and repose to an empire so great and so distracted as ours, is, merely in the attempt, an undertaking that would ennoble the flights of the highest genius, and obtain pardon for the efforts of the meanest understanding. Struggling a good while with these thoughts, by degrees I felt myself more firm. I derived, at length, some confidence from what in other circumstances usually produces timidity. I grew less anxious, even from the idea of my own insignificance. For, judging of what you are by what you ought to be, I persuaded myself that you would not reject a reasonable proposition because it had nothing but its reason to recommend it. On the other hand, being totally destitute of all shadow of influence, natural or adventitious, I was very sure that, if my proposition were futile or dangerous, if it were weakly conceived, or improperly timed, there was nothing exterior to it, of power to awe, dazzle, or delude you. You will see it just as it is: and you will treat it just as it deserves.

The proposition is peace. Not peace through the medium of war; not peace to be hunted through the labyrinth of intricate and endless negotiations; not peace to arise out of universal discord, fomented from principle, in all parts of the empire; not peace to depend on the judicial determination of perplexing questions, or the precise marking the shadowy boundaries of a complex government. It is simply peace, sought in its natural course, and in its ordinary haunts. It is peace sought in the spirit of peace, and laid in principles purely pacific. I propose, by removing the ground of the difference, and by restoring the *former unsuspecting confidence of the colonies in the mother-country*, to give permanent satisfaction to your people; and (far from a scheme of ruling by discord) to reconcile them to each other in the same act, and by the bond of the very same interest which reconciles them to British government.

My idea is nothing more. Refined policy ever has been the parent of confusion, and ever will be so, as long as the world

endures. Plain good intention, which is as easily discovered at the first view as fraud is surely detected at last, is, let me say, of no mean force in the government of mankind. Genuine simplicity of heart is an healing and cementing principle. My plan, therefore, being formed upon the most simple grounds imaginable, may disappoint some people when they hear it. It has nothing to recommend it to the pruriency of curious ears. There is nothing at all new and captivating in it. It has nothing of the splendour of the project which has been lately laid upon your table by the noble lord in the blue riband. It does not propose to fill your lobby with squabbling colony agents, who will require the interposition of your mace, at every instant, to keep the peace among them. It does not institute a magnificent auction of finance, where captivated provinces come to general ransom by bidding against each other, until you knock down the hammer, and determine a proportion of payments beyond all the powers of algebra to equalize and settle.

The plan which I shall presume to suggest derives, however, one great advantage from the proposition and registry of that noble lord's project. The idea of conciliation is admissible. First, the House, in accepting the resolution moved by the noble lord, has admitted, notwithstanding the menacing front of our address, notwithstanding our heavy bills of pains and penalties, that we do not think ourselves precluded from all ideas of free grace and bounty.

The House has gone further; it has declared conciliation admissible, previous to any submission on the part of America. It has even shot a good deal beyond that mark, and has admitted that the complaints of our former mode of exerting the right of taxation were not wholly unfounded. That right thus exerted is allowed to have had something reprehensible in it; something unwise, or something grievous; since, in the midst of our heat and resentment, we, of ourselves, have proposed a capital alteration; and, in order to get rid of what seemed so very exceptionable, have instituted a mode that is altogether new; one that is, indeed, wholly alien from all the ancient methods and forms of Parliament.

The *principle* of this proceeding is large enough for my purpose. The means proposed by the noble lord for carrying his ideas into execution, I think, indeed, are very indifferently suited to the end; and this I shall endeavour to show you before I sit down. But, for the present, I take my ground on the admitted principle. I mean to give peace. Peace implies reconciliation; and, where there has been a material dispute, reconciliation does in a manner always imply concession on the one part or on the other. In this state of things I make no difficulty in affirming that the proposal ought to originate from us. Great and acknowledged force is not impaired either in effect or in opinion by an unwillingness to exert itself. The superior power may offer peace with honour and with safety. Such an offer from such a power will be attributed to magnanimity. But the concessions of the weak are the concessions of fear. When such a one is disarmed, he is wholly at the mercy of his superior; and he loses forever that time and those chances, which, as they happen to all men, are the strength and resources of all inferior power.

The capital leading questions on which you must this day decide are these two: First, whether you ought to concede; and, secondly, what your concession ought to be. On the first of these questions we have gained (as I have just taken the liberty of observing to you) some ground. But I am sensible that a good deal more is still to be done. Indeed, sir, to enable us to determine both on the one and the other of these great questions with a firm and precise judgment, I think it may be necessary to consider distinctly the true nature and the peculiar circumstances of the object which we have before us. Because after all our struggle, whether we will or not, we must govern America according to that nature, and to those circumstances; and not according to our own imaginations; nor according to abstract ideas of right; by no means according to mere general theories of government, the resort to which it appears to me, in our present situation, no better than arrant trifling. I shall therefore endeavour, with your leave, to lay before you some of the most material of these circumstances in

as full and as clear a manner as I am able to state them.

The first thing that we have to consider with regard to the nature of the object is—the number of people in the colonies. I have taken for some years a good deal of pains on that point. I can by no calculation justify myself in placing the number below 2,000,000 of inhabitants of our own European blood and colour; besides at least 500,000 others, who form no inconsiderable part of the strength and opulence of the whole. This, sir, is, I believe, about the true number. There is no occasion to exaggerate, where plain truth is of so much weight and importance. But whether I put the present number too high or too low is a matter of little moment. Such is the strength with which population shoots in that part of the world that, state the numbers as high as we will, whilst the dispute continues, the exaggeration ends. Whilst we are discussing any given magnitude, they are grown to it. Whilst we spend our time in deliberating on the mode of governing 2,000,000, we shall find we have millions more to manage. Your children do not grow faster from infancy to manhood than they spread from families to communities, and from villages to nations.

I put this consideration of the present and the growing numbers in the front of our deliberation; because, sir, this consideration will make it evident to a blunter discernment than yours that no partial, narrow, contracted, pinched, occasional system will be at all suitable to such an object. It will show you that it is not to be considered as one of those *minima* (trifles) which are out of the eye and consideration of the law; not a paltry excrescence of the state, not a mean dependent, who may be neglected with little damage and provoked with little danger. It will prove that some degree of care and caution is required in the handling such an object; it will show that you ought not, in reason, to trifle with so large a mass of the interests and feelings of the human race. You could at no time do so without guilt; and be assured you will not be able to do it long with impunity.

But the population of this country, the great and growing population, though a very important consideration, will not lose much of its weight if not combined with other circumstances. The commerce of your colonies is out of all proportion beyond the numbers of the people. This ground of their commerce, indeed, has been trod some days ago, and with great ability, by a distinguished person, at your bar. This gentleman, after thirty-five years—it is so long since he first appeared at the same place to plead for the commerce of Great Britain—has come again before you to plead the same cause, without any other effect of time than that to the fire of imagination and extent of erudition, which even then marked him as one of the first literary characters of his age, he has added a consummate knowledge in the commercial interest of his country, formed by a long course of enlightened and discriminating experience.

Sir, I should be inexcusable in coming after such a person with any detail if a great part of the members who now fill the House had not the misfortune to be absent when he appeared at your bar. Besides, sir, I propose to take the matter at periods of time somewhat different from his. There is, if I mistake not, a point of view, from whence, if you would look at this subject, it is impossible that it should not make an impression upon you.

I have in my hand two accounts: one a comparative state of the export trade of England to its colonies, as it stood in the year 1704, and as it stood in the year 1772; the other a state of the export trade of this country to its colonies alone, as it stood in 1772, compared with the whole trade of England to all parts of the world (the colonies included) in the year 1704. They are from good vouchers; the latter period from the accounts on your table, the earlier from an original manuscript of Davenant, who first established the inspector-general's office, which has been ever since his time so abundant a source of parliamentary information.

The export trade to the colonies consists of three great branches. The African, which, terminating almost wholly in the colonies, must be put to the account of their commerce; the West Indian; and

the North American. All these are so interwoven that the attempt to separate them would tear to pieces the contexture of the whole; and if not entirely destroy, would very much depreciate the value of all the parts. I therefore consider these three denominations to be, what in effect they are, one trade.

The trade to the colonies, taken on the export side, at the beginning of this century—that is, in the year 1704—stood thus:

Exports to North America and the West Indies	£483,265
To Africa	86,665
	£569,930

In the year 1772, which I take as a middle year between the highest and lowest of those lately laid on your table, the account was as follows:

To North America and the West Indies	£4,791,734
To Africa	866,398
To which if you add the export trade from Scotland, which had in 1704 no existence	364,000
	£6,022,132

From five hundred and odd thousand, it has grown to six millions. It has increased no less than twelvefold. This is the state of the colony trade, as compared with itself at these two periods, within this century — and this is matter for meditation. But this is not all. Examine my second account. See how the export trade to the colonies alone in 1772 stood in the other point of view, that is, as compared to the whole trade of England in 1704:

The whole export trade of England, including that to the colonies, in 1704	£6,509,000
Export to the colonies alone, in 1772	6,024,000
Difference	£ 485,000

The trade with America alone is now within less than £500,000 of being equal to what this great commercial nation, England, carried on at the beginning of this century with the whole world! If I had taken the largest year of those on your table, it would rather have exceeded. But, it will be said, is not this American trade an unnatural protuberance, that has drawn the juices from the rest of the body? The reverse. It is the very food that has nourished every other part into its present magnitude. Our general trade has been greatly augmented, and augmented more or less in almost every part to which it ever extended; but with this material difference, that of the £6,000,000 which in the beginning of the century constituted the whole mass of our export commerce, the colony trade was but one-twelfth part; it is now (as a part of £16,000,000) considerably more than a third of the whole. This is the relative proportion of the importance of the colonies at these two periods: and all reasoning concerning our mode of treating them must have this proportion as its basis, or it is a reasoning weak, rotten, and sophistical.

Mr. Speaker, I cannot prevail on myself to hurry over this great consideration. It is good for us to be here. We stand where we have an immense view of what is, and what is past. Clouds, indeed, and darkness rest upon the future. Let us, however, before we descend from this noble eminence, reflect that this growth of our national prosperity has happened within the short period of the life of man. It has happened within sixty-eight years. There are those alive whose memory might touch the two extremities. For instance, my Lord Bathurst might remember all the stages of the progress. He was in 1704 of an age at least to be made to comprehend such things. He was then old enough *acta parentum jam legere, et quae sit potuit cognoscere virtus* (to study the doings of his forefathers, and to learn the meaning of virtue). Suppose, sir, that the angel of this auspicious youth—foreseeing the many virtues, which made him one of the most amiable, as he is one of the most fortunate, men of his age—had opened to him in vision, that when, in the fourth generation, the third prince of the House of Brunswick had sat twelve years on the throne of that nation, which (by the happy issue of moderate and healing counsels) was to be made Great Britain, he should see his son, Lord Chancellor of England, turn back the current of heredi-

tary dignity to its fountain, and raise him to a higher rank of peerage, whilst he enriched the family with a new one. If amidst these bright and happy scenes of domestic honour and prosperity, that angel should have drawn up the curtain, and unfolded the rising glories of his country, and whilst he was gazing with admiration on the then commercial grandeur of England, the genius should point out to him a little speck, scarce visible in the mass of the national interest, a small seminal principle, rather than a formed body, and should tell him: "Young man, there is America, which at this day serves for little more than to amuse you with stories of savage men, and uncouth manners; yet shall, before you taste of death, show itself equal to the whole of that commerce which now attracts the envy of the world. Whatever England has been growing to by a progressive increase of improvement, brought in by varieties of people, by succession of civilizing conquests and civilizing settlements in a series of 1,700 years, you shall see as much added to her by America in the course of a single life!" If this state of his country had been foretold to him, would it not require all the sanguine credulity of youth, and all the fervid glow of enthusiasm, to make him believe it? Fortunate man, he has lived to see it! Fortunate, indeed, if he lives to see nothing that shall vary the prospect and cloud the setting of his day!

Excuse me, sir, if, turning from such thoughts, I resume this comparative view once more. You have seen it on a large scale; look at it on a small one. I will point out to your attention a particular instance of it in the single province of Pennsylvania. In the year 1704, that province called for £11,459 in value of your commodities, native and foreign. This was the whole. What did it demand in 1772? Why, nearly fifty times as much; for in that year the export to Pennsylvania was £507,909, nearly equal to the export to all the colonies together in the first period.

I choose, sir, to enter into these minute and particular details; because generalities, which in all other cases are apt to heighten and raise the subject, have here a tendency to sink it. When we speak of the commerce with our colonies, fiction lags after truth, invention is untruthful, and imagination cold and barren.

So far, sir, as to the importance of the object in view of its commerce, as concerned in the exports from England. If I were to detail the imports, I could show how many enjoyments they procure, which relieve the burthen of life; how many materials which invigorate the springs of national industry, and extend and animate every part of our foreign and domestic commerce. This would be a curious subject, indeed—but I must prescribe bounds to myself in a matter so vast and various.

I pass therefore to the colonies in another point of view—their agriculture. This they have prosecuted with such a spirit that, besides feeding plentifully their own growing multitude, their annual export of grain, comprehending rice, has some years ago exceeded £1,000,000 in value. Of their last harvest, I am persuaded they will export much more. At the beginning of the century some of these colonies imported corn from the mother-country. For some time past, the Old World has been fed from the New. The scarcity which you have felt would have been a desolating famine if this child of your old age, with a true filial piety, with a Roman charity, had not put the full breast of its youthful exuberance to the mouth of its exhausted parent.

As to the wealth which the colonies have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought these acquisitions of value, for they seemed even to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised your esteem and admiration. And pray, sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the people of New England have of late carried on the whale fishery. Whilst we follow them among the tumbling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits, whilst we are looking for them beneath the arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold, that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the

south. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place in the progress of their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both the poles. We know that whilst some of them draw the line and strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude, and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea but what is vexed by their fisheries. No climate that is not witness to their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pushed by this recent people; a people who are still, as it were, but in the gristle, and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood. When I contemplate these things, when I know that the colonies in general owe little or nothing to any care of ours, and that they are not squeezed into this happy form by the constraints of watchful and suspicious government, but that, through a wise and salutary neglect, a generous nature has been suffered to take her own way to perfection; when I reflect upon these effects, when I see how profitable they have been to us, I feel all the pride of power sink, and all presumption in the wisdom of human contrivances melt and die away within me. My rigour relents. I pardon something to the spirit of liberty.

I am sensible, sir, that all which I have asserted in my detail is admitted in the gross; but that quite a different conclusion is drawn from it. America, gentlemen say, is a noble object. It is an object well worth fighting for. Certainly it is, if fighting a people be the best way of gaining them. Gentlemen in this respect will be led to their choice of means by their complexions and their habits. Those who understand the military art will, of course, have some predilection for it. Those who wield the thunder of the state may have some confidence in the efficacy of arms. But I confess, possibly for want of this knowledge, my opinion is much more in favour of prudent management than of force; considering force not as an odious, but a feeble instrument, for preserving a people so numerous, so active, so growing, so spirited as this, in a profitable and subordinate connection with us.

First, sir, permit me to observe that the use of force alone is but *temporary*. It may subdue for a moment; but it does not remove the necessity of subduing again; and a nation is not governed which is perpetually to be conquered.

My next objection is its uncertainty. Terror is not always the effect of force; and an armament is not a victory. If you do not succeed, you are without resource; for, conciliation failing, force remains; but, force failing, no further hope of reconciliation is left. Power and authority are sometimes bought by kindness; but they can never be begged as alms by an impoverished and defeated violence.

A further objection to force is that you *impair the object* by your very endeavours to preserve it. The thing you fought for is not the thing which you recover, but depreciated, sunk, wasted, and consumed in the contest. Nothing less will content me than *whole America*. I do not choose to consume its strength along with our own; because in all parts it is the British strength that I consume. I do not choose to be caught by a foreign enemy at the end of this exhausting conflict; and still less in the midst of it. I may escape; but I can make no insurance against such an event. Let me add that I do not choose wholly to break the American spirit; because it is the spirit that has made the country.

Lastly, we have no sort of *experience* in favour of force as an instrument in the rule of our colonies. Their growth and their utility has been owing to methods altogether different. Our ancient indulgence has been said to be pursued to a fault. It may be so. But we know, if feeling is evidence, that our fault was more tolerable than our attempt to mend it; and our sin far more salutary than our penitence.

These, sir, are my reasons for not entertaining that high opinion of untried force, by which many gentlemen, for whose sentiments in other particulars I have great respect, seem to be so greatly capti-

vated. But there is still behind a third consideration concerning this object, which serves to determine my opinion on the sort of policy which ought to be pursued in the management of America, even more than its population and its commerce. I mean its *temper and character.*

In this character of the Americans, a love of freedom is the predominating feature which marks and distinguishes the whole; and as an ardent is always a jealous affection, your colonies become suspicious, restive, and untractable, whenever they see the least attempt to wrest from them by force, or shuffle from them by chicane, what they think the only advantage worth living for. This fierce spirit of liberty is stronger in the English colonies probably than in any other people of the earth; and this from a great variety of powerful causes; which, to understand the true temper of their minds and the direction which this spirit takes, it will not be amiss to lay open somewhat more largely.

First, the people of the colonies are descendants of Englishmen. England, sir, is a nation, which still, I hope, respects, and formerly adored her freedom. The colonists emigrated from you when this part of your character was most predominant; and they took their bias and direction the moment they parted from your hands. They are, therefore, not only devoted to liberty, but to liberty according to English ideas, and on English principles. Abstract liberty, like other mere abstractions, is not to be found. Liberty inheres in some sensible object; and every nation has formed to itself some favourite point, which by way of eminence becomes the criterion of their happiness. It happened, you know, sir, that the great contests for freedom in this country were from the earliest times chiefly upon the question of taxing. Most of the contests in the ancient commonwealths turned primarily on the right of election of magistrates or on the balance among the several orders of the state. The question of money was not with them so immediate. But in England it was otherwise. On this point of taxes the ablest pens and most eloquent tongues have been exercised; the greatest spirits have acted and suffered. In order to give the fullest satisfaction concerning the importance of this point, it was not only necessary for those who in argument defended the excellence of the English constitution to insist on this privilege of granting money as a dry point of fact, and to prove that the right had been acknowledged in ancient parchments, and blind usages, to reside in a certain body called a House of Commons. They went much farther; they attempted to prove, and they succeeded, that in theory it ought to be so, from the particular nature of a House of Commons, as an immediate representative of the people; whether the old records had delivered this oracle or not. They took infinite pains to inculcate, as a fundamental principle, that in all monarchies the people must, in effect, themselves, mediately or immediately, possess the power of granting their own money, or no shadow of liberty could subsist. The colonies draw from you, as with their life-blood, these ideas and principles. Their love of liberty, as with you, fixed and attached on this specific point of taxing. Liberty might be safe, or might be endangered, in twenty other particulars, without their being much pleased or alarmed. Here they felt its pulse; and as they found that beat, they thought themselves sick or sound. I do not say whether they were right or wrong in applying your general arguments to their own case. It is not easy, indeed, to make a monopoly of theorems an corollaries. The fact is that they did thus apply those general arguments; and your mode of governing them, whether through lenity or indolence, through wisdom or mistake, confirmed them in the imagination that they, as well as you, had an interest in these common principles.

They were further confirmed in this pleasing error by the form of their provincial legislative assemblies. Their governments are popular in a high degree; some are merely popular; in all, the popular representative is the most weighty; and this share of the people in their ordinary government never fails to inspire them with lofty sentiments, and with a strong aversion from whatever tends to deprive them of their chief importance.

If anything were wanting to this necessary operation of the form of government, religion would have given it a complete

effect. Religion, always a principle of energy, in this new people is no way worn out or impaired; and their mode of professing it is also one main cause of their free spirit. The people are Protestants; and of that kind which is the most adverse to all implicit submission of mind and opinion. This is a persuasion not only favourable to liberty, but built upon it. I do not think, sir, that the reason of this averseness in the dissenting churches from all that looks like absolute government is so much to be sought in their religious tenets as in their history. Every one knows that the Roman Catholic religion is at least coeval with most of the governments where it prevails, that it has generally gone hand in hand with them, and received great favour and every kind of support from authority. The Church of England, too, was formed from her cradle under the nursing care of regular government. But the dissenting interests have sprung up in direct opposition to all the ordinary powers of the world, and could justify that opposition only on a strong claim to natural liberty. Their very existence depended on the powerful and unremitted assertion of that claim. All Protestantism, even the most cold and passive, is a sort of dissent. But the religion most prevalent in our northern colonies is a refinement on the principle of resistance; it is the dissidence of dissent, and the Protestantism of the Protestant religion. This religion, under a variety of denominations agreeing in nothing but in the communion of the spirit of liberty, is predominant in most of the northern provinces, where the Church of England, notwithstanding its legal rights, is in reality no more than a sort of private sect, not composing most probably the tenth of the people. The colonists left England when this spirit was high, and in the emigrants was the highest of all; and even that stream of foreigners, which has been constantly flowing into these colonies, has, for the greatest part, been composed of dissenters from the establishments of their several countries, and have brought with them a temper and character far from alien to that of the people with whom they mixed.

Sir, I can perceive by their manner that some gentlemen object to the latitude of this description; because in the southern colonies the Church of England forms a large body, and has a regular establishment. It is certainly true. There is, however, a circumstance attending these colonies, which, in my opinion, fully counterbalances this difference, and makes the spirit of liberty still more high and haughty than in those to the northward. It is that in Virginia and the Carolinas they have a vast number of slaves. Where this is the case in any part of the world, those who are free are by far the most proud and jealous of their freedom. Freedom is to them not only an enjoyment, but a kind of rank and privilege. Not seeing there, that freedom, as in countries where it is a common blessing, and as broad and general as the air, may be united with much abject toil, with great misery, with all the exterior of servitude, liberty looks amongst them like something that is more noble and liberal. I do not mean, sir, to commend the superior morality of this sentiment, which has at least as much pride as virtue in it; but I cannot alter the nature of man. The fact is so; and these people of the southern colonies are much more strongly, and with a higher and more stubborn spirit, attached to liberty, than those to the northward. Such were all the ancient commonwealths; such were our Gothic ancestors; such in our days were the Poles; and such will be all masters of slaves, who are not slaves themselves. In such a people, the haughtiness of domination combines with the spirit of freedom, fortifies it, and renders it invincible.

Permit me, sir, to add another circumstance in our colonies, which contributes no mean part towards the growth and effect of this untractable spirit. I mean their education. In no country perhaps in the world is the law so general a study. The profession itself is numerous and powerful; and in most provinces it takes the lead. The greater number of the deputies sent to the colonies were lawyers. But all who read — and most do read — endeavour to obtain some smattering in that science. I have been told by an eminent bookseller, that in no branch of his business, after tracts of popular devotion, were so many books as those on the law exported to the plantations. The

colonists have now fallen into the way of printing them for their own use. I hear that they have sold nearly as many of Blackstone's *Commentaries* in America as in England. General Gage marks out this disposition very particularly in a letter on your table. He states that all the people in his government are lawyers, or smatterers in law; and that in Boston they have been enabled, by successful chicane, wholly to evade many parts of one of your capital penal constitutions. The smartness of debate will say that this knowledge ought to teach them more clearly the rights of legislature, their obligations to obedience, and the penalties of rebellion. All this is mighty well. But my honoured and learned friend on the floor, who condescends to mark what I say for animadversion, will disdain that ground. He has heard, as well as I, that when great honours and great emoluments do not win over this knowledge to the service of the state, it is a formidable adversary to government. If the spirit be not tamed and broken by these happy methods, it is stubborn and litigious. *Abeunt studia in mores* (Pursuits influence character). This study renders men acute, inquisitive, dexterous, prompt in attack, ready in defence, full of resources. In other countries, the people, more simple, and of a less mercurial cast, judge of an ill principle in government only by an actual grievance; here they anticipate the evil, and judge of the pressure of the grievance by the badness of the principle. They augur misgovernment at a distance; and snuff the approach of tyranny in every tainted breeze.

The last cause of this disobedient spirit in the colonies is hardly less powerful than the rest, as it is not merely moral, but laid deep in the natural constitution of things. Three thousand miles of ocean lie between you and them. No contrivance can prevent the effect of this distance in weakening government. Seas roll, and months pass, between the order and the execution; and the want of a speedy explanation of a single point is enough to defeat a whole system. You have, indeed, winged ministers of vengeance, who carry your bolts in their pounces to the remotest verge of the sea. But there a power steps in, that limits the arrogance of raging passions and furious elements, and says, "So far shalt thou go, and no farther." Who are you, that should fret and rage, and bite the chains of nature? Nothing worse happens to you than does to all nations who have extensive empire; and it happens in all the forms into which empire can be thrown. In large bodies, the circulation of power must be less vigorous at the extremities. Nature has said it. The Turk cannot govern Egypt, and Arabia, and Curdistan, as he governs Thrace; nor has he the same dominion in Crimea and Algiers which he has at Brusa and Smyrna. Despotism itself is obliged to truck and huckster. The Sultan gets such obedience as he can. He governs with a loose rein that he may govern at all; and the whole of the force and vigour of his authority in his centre is derived from a prudent relaxation in all his borders. Spain, in her provinces, is, perhaps, not so well obeyed as you are in yours. She complies too; she submits; she watches times. This is the immutable condition, the eternal law, of extensive and detached empire.

Then, sir, from these six capital sources: of descent; of form of government; of religion in the northern provinces; of manners in the southern; of education; of the remoteness of situation from the first mover of government—from all these causes a fierce spirit of liberty has grown up. It has grown with the growth of the people in your colonies, and increased with the increase of their wealth; a spirit that, unhappily meeting with an exercise of power in England, which, however lawful, is not reconcilable to any ideas of liberty, much less with theirs, has kindled the flame that is ready to consume us.

I do not mean to commend either the spirit in this excess, or the moral causes which produce it. Perhaps a more smooth and accommodating spirit of freedom in them would be more acceptable to us. Perhaps ideas of liberty might be desired, more reconcilable with an arbitrary and boundless authority. Perhaps we might wish the colonists to be persuaded that their liberty is more secure when laid in trust for them by us (as their guardians during a perpetual minority) than with any part of it in their own hands. The

question is, not whether their spirit deserves praise or blame, but—what, in the name of God, shall we do with it? You have before you the object, such as it is, with all its glories, with all its imperfections, on its head. You see the magnitude; the importance; the temper; the habits; the disorders. By all these considerations we are strongly urged to determine something concerning it. We are called upon to fix some rule and line for our future conduct, which may give a little stability to our politics, and prevent the return of such unhappy deliberations as the present. Every such return will bring the matter before us in a still more untractable form. For, what astonishing and incredible things have we not seen already! What monsters have not been generated from this unnatural contention! Whilst every principle of authority and resistance has been pushed, upon both sides, as far as it would go, there is nothing so solid and certain, either in reasoning or in practice, that has not been shaken. Until very lately, all authority in America seemed to be nothing but an emanation from yours. Even the popular part of the colony constitution derived all its activity, and its first vital movement, from the pleasure of the crown. We thought, sir, that the utmost which the discontented colonists could do was to disturb authority; we never dreamt they could of themselves supply it, knowing in general what an operose business it is to establish a government absolutely new. But having, for our purposes in this contention, resolved that none but an obedient assembly should sit, the humours of the people there, finding all passage through the legal channels stopped, with great violence broke out another way. Some provinces have tried their experiment, as we have tried ours; and theirs have succeeded. They have formed a government sufficient for its purposes, without the bustle of a revolution, or the troublesome formality of an election. Evident necessity, and tacit consent, have done the business in an instant. So well they have done it, that Lord Dunmore (the account is among the fragments on your table) tells you, that the new institution is infinitely better obeyed than the ancient government ever was in its most fortunate periods. Obedience is what makes government, and not the names by which it is called; not the name of governor, as formerly, or committee, as at present. This new government has originated directly from the people; and was not transmitted through any of the ordinary media of a positive constitution. It was not a manufacture ready formed, but transmitted to them in that condition from England. The evil arising from hence is this: that the colonists having once found the possibility of enjoying the advantages of order in the midst of a struggle for liberty, such struggles will not henceforward seem so terrible to the settled and sober part of mankind as they had appeared before the trial.

Pursuing the same plan of punishing by the denial of the exercise of government to still greater lengths, we wholly abrogated the ancient government of Massachusetts. We were confident that the first feeling, if not the very prospect of anarchy, would instantly enforce a complete submission. The experiment was tried. A new, strange, unexpected face of things appeared. Anarchy is found tolerable. A vast province has now subsisted, and subsisted in a considerable degree of health and vigour, for near a twelvemonth, without governor, without public council, without judges, without executive magistrates. How long it will continue in this state, or what may rise out of this unheard-of situation, how can the wisest of us conjecture? Our late experience has taught us that many of those fundamental principles, formerly believed infallible, are either not of the importance they were imagined to be, or that we have not at all adverted to some other far more important and far more powerful principles, which entirely overrule those we had considered as omnipotent. I am much against any further experiments, which tend to put to the proof any more of these allowed opinions, which contribute so much to the public tranquillity. In effect, we suffer as much at home by this loosening of all ties, and this concussion of all established opinions, as we do abroad. For, in order to prove that the Americans have no right to their liberties, we are every day endeavouring to subvert the maxims which preserve the whole spirit

of our own. To prove that the Americans ought not to be free, we are obliged to depreciate the value of freedom itself; and we never seem to gain a paltry advantage over them in debate, without attacking some of those principles, or deriding some of those feelings, for which our ancestors have shed their blood.

But, sir, in wishing to put an end to pernicious experiments, I do not mean to preclude the fullest inquiry. Far from it. Far from deciding on a sudden or partial view, I would patiently go round and round the subject, and survey it minutely in every possible aspect. Sir, if I were capable of engaging you to an equal attention, I would state that, as far as I am capable of discerning, there are but three ways of proceeding relative to this stubborn spirit which prevails in our colonies, and disturbs your government. These are—To change that spirit, as inconvenient, by removing the causes. To prosecute it as criminal. Or, to comply with it as necessary. I would not be guilty of an imperfect enumeration; I can think of but these three. Another has indeed been stated, that of giving up the colonies; but it met so slight a reception, that I do not think myself obliged to dwell a great while upon it. It is nothing but a little sally of anger, like the frowardness of peevish children, who, when they cannot get all they would have, are resolved to take nothing.

The first of these plans, to change the spirit as inconvenient, by removing the causes, I think, is the most like a systematic proceeding. It is radical in its principle; but it is attended with great difficulties, some of them little short, as I conceive, of impossibilities. This will appear by examining into the plans which have been proposed.

As the growing population in the colonies is evidently one cause of their resistance, it was last session mentioned in both Houses by men of weight, and received not without applause, that in order to check this evil it would be proper for the crown to make no further grants of land. But to this scheme there are two objections. The first, that there is already so much unsettled land in private hands as to afford room for an immense future population, although the crown not only withheld its grants, but annihilated its soil. If this be the case, then the only effect of this avarice of desolation, this hoarding of a royal wilderness, would be to raise the value of the possession in the hands of the great private monopolists, without any adequate check to the growing and alarming mischief of population.

But if you stopped your grants, what would be the consequences? The people would occupy without grants. They have already so occupied in many places. You cannot station garrisons in every part of these deserts. If you drive the people from one place, they will carry on their annual tillage, and remove with their flocks and herds to another. Many of the people in the back settlements are already little attached to particular situations. Already they have topped the Appalachian Mountains. From thence they behold before them an immense plain, one vast, rich, level meadow; a square of 500 miles. Over this they would wander without a possibility of restraint; they would change their manners with the habits of their life; would soon forget a government by which they were disowned; would become hordes of English Tartars; and pouring down upon your unfortified frontiers a fierce and irresistible cavalry, become masters of your governors and your counsellors, your collectors and comptrollers, and of all the slaves that adhere to them. Such would, and, in no long time, must be, the effect of attempting to forbid as a crime, and to suppress as an evil, the command and blessing of Providence, "Increase and multiply." Such would be the happy result of an endeavour to keep as a lair of wild beasts that earth which God, by an express charter, has given to the children of men. Far different, and surely much wiser, has been our policy hitherto. Hitherto we have invited our people, by every kind of bounty, to fixed establishments. We have invited the husbandman to look to authority for his title. We have taught him piously to believe in the mysterious virtue of wax and parchment. We have thrown each tract of land, as it was peopled, into districts, that the ruling power should never be wholly out of sight. We have settled all we could; and we have care-

fully attended every settlement with government.

Adhering, sir, as I do, to this policy, as well as for the reasons I have just given, I think this new project of hedging in population to be neither prudent nor practicable. To impoverish the colonies in general, and in particular to arrest the noble course of their marine enterprises, would be a more easy task. I freely confess it. We have shown a disposition to a system of this kind; a disposition even to continue the restraint after the offence; looking on ourselves as rivals to our colonies, and persuaded that of course we must gain all that they shall lose. Much mischief we may certainly do. The power inadequate to all other things is often more than sufficient for this. I do not look on the direct and immediate power of the colonies to resist our violence as very formidable. In this, however, I may be mistaken. But when I consider that we have colonies for no purpose but to be serviceable to us, it seems to my poor understanding a little preposterous to make them unserviceable in order to keep them obedient. It is, in truth, nothing more than the old and, as I thought, exploded problem of tyranny, which proposes to beggar its subjects into submission. But remember, when you have completed your system of impoverishment, that nature still proceeds in her ordinary course; that discontent will increase with misery; and that there are critical moments in the fortune of all states, when they who are too weak to contribute to your prosperity, may be strong enough to complete your ruin. *Spoliatis arma supersunt* (The plundered ne'er want arms).

The temper and character which prevail in our colonies are, I am afraid, unalterable by any human art. We cannot, I fear, falsify the pedigree of this fierce people, and persuade them that they are not sprung from a nation in whose veins the blood of freedom circulates. The language in which they would hear you tell them this tale would detect the imposition; your speech would betray you. An Englishman is the unfittest person on earth to argue another Englishman into slavery.

I think it is nearly as little in our power to change their republican religion, as their free descent; or to substitute the Roman Catholic, as a penalty, or the Church of England, as an improvement. The mode of inquisition and dragooning is going out of fashion in the Old World; and I should not confide much to their efficacy in the New. The education of the Americans is also on the same unalterable bottom with their religion. You cannot persuade them to burn their books of curious science; to banish their lawyers from their courts of law; or to quench the light of their assemblies by refusing to choose those persons who are best read in their privileges. It would be no less impracticable to think of wholly annihilating the popular assemblies, in which these lawyers sit. The army, by which we must govern in their place, would be far more chargeable to us; not quite so effectual; and perhaps, in the end, full as difficult to be kept in obedience.

With regard to the high aristocratic spirit of Virginia and the southern colonies, it has been proposed, I know, to reduce it, by declaring a general enfranchisement of their slaves. This project has had its advocates and panegyrists; yet I never could argue myself into any opinion of it. Slaves are often much attached to their masters. A general wild offer of liberty would not always be accepted. History furnishes few instances of it. It is sometimes as hard to persuade slaves to be free, as it is to compel freemen to be slaves, and in this auspicious scheme, we should have both these pleasing tasks on our hands at once. But when we talk of enfranchisement, do we not perceive that the American master may enfranchise too; and arm servile hands in defence of freedom? A measure to which other people have had recourse more than once, and not without success, in a desperate situation of their affairs.

Slaves as these unfortunate black people are, and dull as all men are from slavery, must they not a little suspect the offer of freedom from that very nation which has sold them to their present masters? from that nation, one of whose causes of quarrel with those masters is their refusal to deal any more in that inhuman traffic? An offer of freedom from England would come rather oddly, shipped

to them in an African vessel, which is refused an entry into the ports of Virginia or Carolina, with a cargo of 300 Anglo negroes. It would be curious to see the Guinea captain attempting at the same instant to publish his proclamation of liberty, and to advertise his sale of slaves.

But let us suppose all these moral difficulties got over. The ocean remains. You cannot pump this dry; and as long as it continues in its present bed, so long all the causes which weaken authority by distance will continue. "Ye gods, annihilate but space and time, and make two lovers happy!" was a pious and passionate prayer; but just as reasonable, as many of the serious wishes of very grave and solemn politicians.

If, then, sir, it seems almost desperate to think of any alternative course, for changing the moral causes (and not quite easy to remove the natural) which produce prejudices irreconcilable to the late exercise of our authority; but that the spirit infallibly will continue; and, continuing, will produce such effects as now embarrass us, the second mode under consideration is, to prosecute that spirit in its overt acts, as criminal.

At this proposition I must pause a moment. The thing seems a great deal too big for my ideas of jurisprudence. It would seem to my way of conceiving such matters, that there is a very wide difference in reason and policy, between the mode of proceeding on the irregular conduct of scattered individuals, or even of bands of men, who disturb order within the state, and the civil dissensions which may, from time to time, on great questions, agitate the several communities which compose a great empire. It looks to me to be narrow and pedantic, to apply the ordinary ideas of criminal justice to this great public contest. I do not know the method of drawing up an indictment against a whole people. I cannot insult and ridicule the feelings of millions of my fellow-creatures, as Sir Edward Coke insulted one excellent individual (Sir Walter Raleigh) at the bar. I hope I am not ripe to pass sentence on the gravest public bodies, intrusted with magistracies of great authority and dignity, and charged with the safety of their fellow-citizens, upon the very same title that I am. I really think, that for wise men this is not judicious; for sober men, not decent; for minds tinctured with humanity, not mild and merciful.

Perhaps, sir, I am mistaken in my ideas of an empire, as distinguished from a single state or kingdom. But my idea of it is this: that an empire is the aggregate of many states under one common head, whether this head be a monarch, or a presiding republic. It does, in such constitutions, frequently happen (and nothing but the dismal, cold, dead uniformity of servitude can prevent its happening) that the subordinate parts have many local privileges and immunities. Between these privileges and the supreme common authority the line may be extremely nice. Of course, disputes, often, too, very bitter disputes, and much ill blood, will arise. But though every privilege is an exemption (in the case) from the ordinary exercise of the supreme authority, it is no denial of it. The claim of a privilege seems rather, *ex vi termini* (by the meaning of the term), to imply a superior power. For to talk of the privileges of a state, or of a person, who has no superior, is hardly any better than speaking nonsense. Now, in such unfortunate quarrels among the component parts of a great political union of communities, I can scarcely conceive anything more completely imprudent, than for the head of the empire to insist, that, if any privilege is pleaded against his will, or his acts, his whole authority is denied; instantly to proclaim rebellion, to beat to arms, and to put the offending provinces under the ban. Will not this, sir, very soon teach the provinces to make no distinctions on their part? Will it not teach them that the government, against which a claim of liberty is tantamount to high treason, is a government to which submission is equivalent to slavery? It may not always be quite convenient to impress dependent communities with such an idea.

We are, indeed, in all disputes with the colonies, by the necessity of things, the judge. It is true, sir. But I confess, that the character of judge in my own cause is a thing that frightens me. Instead of filling me with pride, I am exceedingly humbled by it. I cannot pro-

ceed with a stern, assured, judicial confidence, until I find myself in something more like a judicial character. I must have these hesitations as long as I am compelled to recollect, that, in my little reading upon such contests as these, the sense of mankind has, at least, as often decided against the superior as the subordinate power. Sir, let me add too, that the opinion of my having some abstract right in my favour, would not put me much at my ease in passing sentence; unless I could be sure, that there were no rights which, in their exercise under certain circumstances, were not the most odious of all wrongs, and the most vexatious of all injustice. Sir, these considerations have great weight with me, when I find things so circumstanced, that I see the same party, at once a civil litigant against me in point of right, and a culprit before me; while I sit as a criminal judge, on acts of his whose moral quality is to be decided upon the merits of that very litigation. Men are every now and then put, by the complexity of human affairs, into strange situations: but justice is the same, let the judge be in what situation he will.

There is, sir, also a circumstance which convinces me that this mode of criminal proceeding is not (at least in the present stage of our contest) altogether expedient; which is nothing less than the conduct of those very persons who have seemed to adopt that mode, by lately declaring a rebellion in Massachusetts Bay, as they had formerly addressed to have traitors brought hither, under an act of Henry VIII., for trial. For though rebellion is declared, it is not proceeded against as such; nor have any steps been taken towards the apprehension or conviction of any individual offender, either on our late or our former address; but modes of public coercion have been adopted, and such as have much more resemblance to a sort of qualified hostility towards an independent power than the punishment of rebellious subjects. All this seems rather inconsistent; but it shows how difficult it is to apply these judicial ideas to our present case.

In this situation let us seriously and coolly ponder. What is it we have got by all our menaces, which have been many and ferocious? What advantage have we derived from the penal laws we have passed, and which, for the time, have been severe and numerous? What advances have we made towards our object, by the sending of a force, which, by land and sea, is no contemptible strength? Has the disorder abated? Nothing less. When I see things in this situation, after such confident hopes, bold promises, and active exertions, I cannot, for my life, avoid a suspicion that the plan itself is not correctly right.

If, then, the removal of the causes of this spirit of American liberty be, for the greater part, or rather entirely, impracticable; if the ideas of criminal process be inapplicable, are in the highest degree inexpedient, what way yet remains? No way is open, but the third and last, to comply with the American spirit as necessary; or, if you please, to submit to it as a necessary evil.

If we adopt this mode; if we mean to conciliate and concede, let us see of what nature the concession ought to be; to ascertain the nature of our concession we must look at their complaint. The colonies complain that they have not the characteristic mark and seal of British freedom. They complain that they are taxed in a Parliament in which they are not represented. If you mean to satisfy them all, you must satisfy them with regard to this complaint. If you mean to please any people, you must give them the boon which they ask; not what you may think better for them, but of a kind totally different. Such an act may be a wise regulation, but it is no concession: whereas our present theme is the mode of giving satisfaction.

Sir, I think you must perceive that I am resolved this day to have nothing at all to do with the question of the right of taxation. Some gentlemen startle, but it is true; I put it totally out of the question. It is less than nothing in my consideration. I do not, indeed, wonder, nor will you, sir, that gentlemen of profound learning are fond of displaying it on this profound subject. But my consideration is narrow, confined, and wholly limited to the policy of the question. I do not examine, whether the giving away a man's money be a power excepted and

reserved out of the general trust of government; and how far all mankind, in all forms of polity, are entitled to an exercise of that right by the charter of nature. Or whether, on the contrary, a right of taxation is necessarily involved in the general principle of legislation, and inseparable from the ordinary supreme power. These are deep questions, where great names militate against each other; where reason is perplexed; and an appeal to authorities only thickens the confusion. For high and reverend authorities lift up their heads on both sides; and there is no sure footing in the middle. This point is the *great Serbonian bog, betwixt Damiata and Mount Casius old, where armies whole have sunk.* I do not intend to be overwhelmed in that bog, though in such respectable company. The question with me is not whether you have a right to render your people miserable, but whether it is not your interest to make them happy. It is not what a lawyer tells me I *may* do, but what humanity, reason, and justice tells me I ought to do. Is a politic act the worse for being a generous one? Is no concession proper but that which is made from your want of right to keep what you grant? Or does it lessen the grace or dignity of relaxing in the exercise of an odious claim, because you have your evidence-room full of titles, and your magazines stuffed with arms to enforce them? What signify all those titles, and all those arms? Of what avail are they when the reason of the thing tells me that the assertion of my title is the loss of my suit; and that I could do nothing but wound myself by the use of my own weapons?

Such is steadfastly my opinion of the absolute necessity of keeping up the concord of this empire by the unity of spirit, though in a diversity of operations, that, if I were sure the colonists had, at their leaving this country, sealed a regular compact of servitude; that they had solemnly abjured all the rights of citizens; that they had made a vow to renounce all ideas of liberty for them and their posterity to all generations; yet I should hold myself obliged to conform to the temper I found universally prevalent in my own day, and to govern 2,000,000 of men, impatient of servitude, on the principles of freedom. I am not determining a point of law; I am restoring tranquillity; and the general character and situation of a people must determine what sort of government is fitted for them. That point nothing else can or ought to determine.

My idea, therefore, without considering whether we yield as matter of right, or grant as matter of favour, is to admit the people of our colonies into an interest in the constitution; and, by recording that admission in the journals of Parliament, to give them as strong an assurance as the nature of the thing will admit, that we mean forever to adhere to that solemn declaration of systematic indulgence.

Some years ago, the repeal of a revenue act, upon its understood principle, might have served to show, that we intended an unconditional abatement of the exercise of a taxing power. Such a measure was then sufficient to remove all suspicion, and to give perfect content. But unfortunate events, since that time, may make something further necessary; and not more necessary for the satisfaction of the colonies, than for the dignity and consistency of our own future proceedings.

I have taken a very incorrect measure of the disposition of the House, if this proposal in itself would be received with dislike. I think, sir, we have few American financiers. But our misfortune is, we are too acute; we are too exquisite in our conjectures of the future, for men oppressed with such great and present evils. The more moderate among the opposers of parliamentary concession freely confess, that they hope no good from taxation; but they apprehend the colonists have further views; and if this point were conceded, they would instantly attack the trade laws. These gentlemen are convinced, that this was the intention from the beginning; and the quarrel of the Americans with taxation was no more than a cloak and cover to this design. Such has been the language even of a gentleman of real moderation, and of a natural temper well adjusted to fair and equal government. I am, however, sir, not a little surprised at this kind of discourse, whenever I hear it; and I am the more surprised, on account of the arguments which I constantly find in company

with it, and which are often urged from the same mouths, and on the same day.

For instance, when we allege, that it is against reason to tax a people under so many restraints in trade as the Americans, the noble lord in the blue riband shall tell you, that the restraints on trade are futile and useless; of no advantage to us, and of no burthen to those on whom they are imposed; that the trade to America is not secured by the acts of navigation, but by the natural and irresistible advantage of a commercial preference.

Such is the merit of the trade laws in this posture of the debate. But when strong internal circumstances are urged against the taxes; when the scheme is dissected; when experience and the nature of things are brought to prove, and do prove, the utter impossibility of obtaining an effective revenue from the colonies; when these things are pressed, or rather press themselves, so as to drive the advocates of colony taxes to a clear admission of the futility of the scheme; then, sir, the sleeping trade laws revive from their trance; and this useless taxation is to be kept sacred, not for its own sake, but as a counter-guard and security of the laws of trade.

Then, sir, you keep up revenue laws which are mischievous, in order to preserve trade laws that are useless. Such is the wisdom of our plan in both its members. They are separately given up as of no value; and yet is always to be defended for the sake of the other. But I cannot agree with the noble lord, nor with the pamphlet from whence he seems to have borrowed these ideas, concerning the inutility of the trade laws. For, without idolizing them, I am sure they are still, in many ways, of great use to us: and in former times they have been of the greatest. They do confine, and they do greatly narrow, the market for the Americans. But my perfect conviction of this does not help me in the least to discern how the revenue laws form any security whatsoever to the commercial regulations; or that these commercial regulations are the true ground of the quarrel; or that the giving way, in any one instance of authority, is to lose all that may remain unconceded.

One fact is clear and indisputable. The public and avowed origin of this quarrel was on taxation. This quarrel has indeed brought on new disputes on new questions; but certainly the least bitter, and the fewest of all, on the trade laws. To judge which of the two be the real, radical cause of quarrel, we have to see whether the commercial dispute did, in order of time, precede the dispute on taxation. There is not a shade of evidence for it. Next, to enable us to judge whether at this moment a dislike to the trade laws be the real cause of quarrel, it is absolutely necessary to put the taxes out of the question by a repeal. See how the Americans act in this position, and then you will be able to discern correctly what is the true object of the controversy, or whether any controversy at all will remain. Unless you consent to remove this cause of difference, it is impossible, with decency, to assert that the dispute is not upon what it is avowed to be. And I would, sir, recommend to your serious consideration, whether it be prudent to form a rule for punishing people, not on their own acts, but on your conjectures? Surely it is preposterous at the very best. It is not justifying your anger, by their misconduct; but it is converting your will into their delinquency.

But the colonies will go further. Alas! alas! when will this speculating against fact and reason end? What will quiet these panic fears which we entertain of the hostile effect of a conciliatory conduct? Is it true, that no case can exist, in which it is proper for the sovereign to accede to the desires of his discontented subjects? Is there anything peculiar in this case, to make a rule for itself? Is all authority of course lost, when it is pushed to the extreme? Is it a certain maxim, that the fewer causes of dissatisfaction are left by government, the more the subject will be inclined to resist and rebel?

All these objections being in fact no more than suspicions, conjectures, divinations, formed in defiance of fact and experience; they did not, sir, discourage me from entertaining the idea of a conciliatory concession, founded on the principles which I have just stated.

In forming a plan for this purpose, I endeavoured to put myself in that frame of mind which was the most natural, and

the most reasonable; and which was certainly the most probable means of securing me from all error. I set out with a perfect distrust of my own abilities; a total renunciation of every speculation of my own; and with a profound reverence for the wisdom of our ancestors, who have left us the inheritance of so happy a constitution, and so flourishing an empire, and, what is a thousand times more valuable, the treasury of the maxims and principles which formed the one, and obtained the other.

During the reigns of the kings of Spain of the Austrian family, whenever they were at a loss in the Spanish councils, it was common for their statesmen to say that they ought to consult the genius of Philip II. The genius of Philip II. might mislead them; and the issue of their affairs showed that they had not chosen the most perfect standard. But, sir, I am sure that I shall not be misled, when, in a case of constitutional difficulty, I consult the genius of the English constitution. Consulting at that oracle (it was with all due humility and piety) I found four capital examples in a similar case before me; those of Ireland, Wales, Chester, and Durham.

Ireland, before the English conquest, though never governed by a despotic power, had no parliament. How far the English Parliament itself was at that time modelled according to the present form, is disputed among antiquarians. But we have all the reason in the world to be assured that a form of parliament, such as England then enjoyed, she instantly communicated to Ireland; and we are equally sure that almost every successive improvement in constitutional liberty, as fast as it was made here, was transmitted thither. The feudal baronage, and the feudal knighthood, the roots of our primitive constitution, were early transplanted into that soil; and grew and flourished there. Magna Charta, if it did not give us originally the House of Commons, gave us at least a House of Commons of weight and consequence. But your ancestors did not churlishly sit down to the feast of Magna Charta. Ireland was made immediately a partaker. This benefit of English laws and liberties, I confess, was not at first extended to all Ireland. Mark the consequence. English authority and English liberties had exactly the same boundaries. Your standard could never be advanced an inch before your privileges. Sir John Davis shows beyond a doubt that the refusal of a general communication of these rights was the true cause why Ireland was 500 years in subduing; and after the vain projects of a military government, attempted in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, it was soon discovered, that nothing could make that country English, in civility and allegiance, but your laws and your forms of legislature. It is not English arms, but the English constitution, that conquered Ireland. From that time Ireland had ever had a general parliament, as she had before a partial parliament. You changed the people; you altered the religion; but you never touched the form of the vital substance of free government in that kingdom. You deposed kings; you restored them; you altered the succession to theirs, as well as to your own crown; but you never altered their constitution; the principle of which was respected by usurpation; restored with the restoration of monarchy and established, I trust, forever, by the glorious Revolution. This has made Ireland the great and flourishing kingdom that it is; and from a disgrace and a burthen intolerable to this nation, has rendered her a principal part of our strength and ornament. This country cannot be said to have ever formally taxed her. The irregular things done in the confusion of mighty troubles, and on the hinge of great revolutions, even if all were done that is said to have been done, form an example. If they have any effect in argument, they make an exception to prove the rule. None of your own liberties could stand a moment if the casual deviations from them, at such times, were suffered to be used as proofs of their nullity. By the lucrative amount of such casual breaches in the constitution, judge what the stated and fixed rule of supply has been in that kingdom. Your Irish pensioners would starve if they had no other fund to live on than taxes granted by English authority. Turn your eyes to those popular grants from whence all great supplies are come; and learn to respect that only source of public wealth in the British empire.

My next example is Wales. This country was said to be reduced by Henry III. It was said more truly to be so by Edward I. But though then conquered, it was not looked upon as any part of the realm of England. Its old constitution, whatever that might have been, was destroyed; and no good one was substituted in its place. The care of that tract was put into the hands of lords marchers, a form of government of a very singular kind; a strange heterogeneous monster, something between hostility and government; perhaps it has a sort of resemblance, according to the modes of those times, to that of commander-in-chief at present, to whom all civil power is granted as secondary. The manners of the Welsh nation followed the genius of the government; the people were ferocious, restive, savage, and uncultivated; sometimes composed, never pacified. Wales, within itself, was in perpetual disorder; and it kept the frontier of England in perpetual alarm. Benefits from it to the state there were none. Wales was only known to England by incursion and invasion.

Sir, during that state of things Parliament was not idle. They attempted to subdue the fierce spirit of the Welsh by all sorts of rigorous laws. They prohibited by statute the sending all sorts of arms into Wales, as you prohibit by proclamation (with something more of doubt on the legality) the sending arms to America. They disarmed the Welsh by statute, as you attempted (but still with more question on the legality) to disarm New England by an instruction. They made an act to drag offenders from Wales to England for trial, as you have done (but with more hardship) with regard to America. By another act, where one of the parties was an Englishman, they ordained that his trial should be always by English. They made acts to restrain trade, as you do; and prevented the Welsh from the use of fairs and markets, as you do the Americans from fisheries and foreign ports. In short, when the statute-book was not quite so much swelled as it is now, you find no less than fifteen acts of penal regulation on the subject of Wales.

Here we rub our hands. A fine body of precedents for the authority of Parliament and the use of it! I admit it fully; and pray add likewise to these precedents that all the while Wales rid this kingdom like an *incubus;* that it was an unprofitable and oppressive burthen; and that an Englishman travelling in that country could not go six yards from the high-road without being murdered.

The march of the human mind is slow. Sir, it was not, until after 200 years, discovered that by an eternal law Providence had decreed vexation to violence, and poverty to rapine. Your ancestors did, however, at length open their eyes to the ill husbandry of injustice. They found that the tyranny of a free people could of all tyrannies the least be endured; and that laws made against a whole nation were not the most effectual methods for securing its obedience. Accordingly, in the twenty-seven years of Henry VIII. the course was entirely altered. With a preamble stating the entire and perfect rights of the crown of England, it gave to the Welsh all the rights and privileges of English subjects. A political order was established; the military power gave way to the civil; the marches were turned into counties. But that a nation should have a right to English liberties, and yet no share at all in the fundamental security of these liberties, the grant of their own property, seemed a thing so incongruous that, eight years after—that is, in the thirty-fifth of that reign—a complete and not ill-proportioned representation by counties and boroughs was bestowed upon Wales by act of Parliament. From this moment, as by a charm, the tumult subsided, obedience was restored, peace, order, and civilization followed in the train of liberty. When the day-star of the English constitution had arisen in their hearts, all was harmony within and without.

Simul alba nautis
Stella refulsit,
Defluit saxis agitatus humor;
Concidunt venti, fugiuntque nubes,
Et minax (quod sic voluere) ponto
Unda recumbit.

(Soon as gleam
Their stars at sea,
The lash'd spray trickles from the steep,
The wind sinks down, the storm-cloud flies,
The threatening billow on the deep
Obedient lies.)

The very same year the county palatine of Chester received the same relief from its oppression, and the same remedy to its disorders. Before this time Chester was little less distempered than Wales. The inhabitants, without rights themselves, were the fittest to destroy the rights of others; and from thence Richard II. drew the standing army of archers, with which for a time he oppressed England. The people of Chester applied to Parliament in a petition penned as I shall read to you:

"To the king our sovereign lord, in most humble wise shown unto your excellent Majesty, the inhabitants of your Grace's county palatine of Chester; That where the said county palatine of Chester is and hath been always hitherto exempt, excluded and separated out and from your high court of Parliament, to have any knights and burgesses within the said court; by reason whereof the said inhabitants have hitherto sustained manifold disherisons, losses, and damages, as well in their lands, goods, and bodies, as in the good, civil, and politic governance and maintenance of the commonwealth of their said country: (2) And forasmuch as the said inhabitants have always hitherto been found by the acts and statutes made and ordained by your said Highness, and your most noble progenitors, by authority of the said court, as far forth as other countries, cities, and boroughs have been, that have had their knights and burgesses within your said court of Parliament, and yet have had neither knight nor burgess there for the said county palatine; the said inhabitants, for lack thereof, have been oftentimes touched and grieved with acts and statutes made within the said court, as well derogatory unto the most ancient jurisdictions, liberties, and privileges of your said county palatine, as prejudicial unto the commonwealth, quietness, rest, and peace of your Grace's most bounden subjects inhabiting within the same."

What did Parliament with this audacious address? Reject it as a libel? Treat it as an affront to government? Spurn it as a derogation from the rights of legislation? Did they toss it over the table? Did they burn it by the hands of the common hangman? They took the petition of grievance, all rugged as it was, without softening or temperament, unpurged of the original bitterness and indignation of complaint; they made it the very preamble of their act of redress; and consecrated its principle to all ages in the sanctuary of legislation.

Here is my third example. It was attended with the success of the two former. Chester, civilized as well as Wales, has demonstrated that freedom, and not servitude, is the cure of anarchy; as religion, and not atheism, is the true remedy for superstition. Sir, this pattern of Chester was followed in the reign of Charles II. with regard to the county palatine of Durham, which is my fourth example. This county had long lain out of the pale of free legislation.

So scrupulously was the example of Chester followed, that the style of the preamble is nearly the same with that of the Chester act; and, without affecting the abstract extent of the authority of Parliament, it recognizes the equity of not suffering any considerable district, in which the British subjects may act as a body, to be taxed without their own voice in the grant.

Now if the doctrines of policy contained in these preambles, and the force of these examples in the acts of Parliament, avail anything, what can be said against applying them with regard to America? Are not the people of America as much Englishmen as the Welsh? The preamble of the act of Henry VIII. says, the Welsh speak a language no way resembling that of his Majesty's English subjects. Are the Americans not as numerous? If we may trust the learned and accurate Judge Barrington's account of North Wales, and take that as a standard to measure the rest, there is no comparison. The people cannot amount to above 200,000; not a tenth part of the number in the colonies. Is America in rebellion? Wales was hardly ever free from it. Have you attempted to govern America by penal statutes? You made fifteen to Wales. But your legislative authority is perfect with regard to America; was it less perfect in Wales, Chester, and Durham? But America is virtually represented. What! does the electric force of virtual representation more easily pass over the Atlantic, than

pervade Wales, which lies in your neighborhood; or than Chester and Durham, surrounded by abundance of representation that is actual and palpable? But, sir, your ancestors thought this sort of virtual representation, however ample, to be totally insufficient for the freedom of the inhabitants of territories that are so near, and comparatively so inconsiderable. How then can I think it sufficient for those which are infinitely greater, and infinitely more remote?

You will now, sir, perhaps imagine, that I am on the point of proposing to you a scheme for a representation of the colonies in Parliament. Perhaps I might be inclined to entertain some such thought; but a great flood stops me in my course. *Opposuit natura* (Nature has barred the way). I cannot remove the eternal barriers of the creation. The thing, in that mode, I do not know to be possible. As I meddle with no theory, I do not absolutely assert the impracticability of such a representation. But I do not see my way to do it; and those who have been more confident have not been more successful. However, the arm of public benevolence is not shortened; and there are often several means to the same end. What nature has disjoined in one way, wisdom may unite in another. When we cannot give the benefit as we would wish, let us not refuse it altogether. If we cannot give the principle, let us find a substitute. But how? Where? What substitute?

Fortunately, I am not obliged for the ways and means of this substitute to tax my own unproductive invention. I am not even obliged to go to the rich treasury of the fertile framers of imaginary commonwealths; not to the Republic of Plato; not to the Utopia of More; not to the Oceana of Harrington. It is before me, it is at my feet, and the rude swain treads daily on it with his clouted shoon. I only wish you to recognize, for the theory, the ancient constitutional policy of this kingdom with regard to representation, as that policy has been declared in acts of Parliament; and, as to the practice, to return to that mode which an uniform experience has marked out to you, as best; and in which you walked with security, advantage, and honour, until the year 1763.

My resolutions, therefore, mean to establish the equity and justice of a taxation of America, by grant, and not by imposition. To mark the legal competency of the colony assemblies for the support of their government in peace, and for public aids in time of war. To acknowledge that this legal competency has had a dutiful and beneficial exercise; and that experience has shown the benefit of their grants, and the futility of parliamentary taxation as a method of supply.

These solid truths compose six fundamental propositions. There are three more resolutions corollary to these. If you admit the first set, you can hardly reject the others. But if you admit the first, I shall be far from solicitous whether you accept or refuse the last. I think these six massive pillars will be of strength sufficient to support the temple of British concord. I have no more doubt than I entertain of my existence, that, if you admitted these, you would command an immediate peace; and, with but tolerable future management, a lasting obedience in America. I am not arrogant in this confident assurance. The propositions are all mere matters of fact; and if they are such facts as draw irresistible conclusions even in the stating, this is the power of truth, and not any mismanagement of mine.

Sir, I shall open the whole plan to you, together with such observations on the motions as may tend to illustrate them where they may want explanation. The first is a resolution "That the colonies and plantations of Great Britain in North America, consisting of fourteen separate governments, and containing 2,000,000 and upwards of free inhabitants, have not had the liberty and privilege of electing and sending any knights and burgesses, or others, to represent them in the high court of Parliament." This is a plain matter of fact, necessary to be laid down, and (excepting the description) it is laid down in the language of the constitution; it is taken nearly verbatim from acts of Parliament.

The second is like unto the first— "That the said colonies and plantations have been liable to, and bounden by, several subsidies, payments, rates, and taxes, given and granted by Parliament, though

the said colonies and plantations have not their knights and burgesses, in the said high court of Parliament, of their own election, to represent the condition of their country; by lack whereof they have been oftentimes touched and grieved by subsidies given, granted, and assented to, in the said court, in a manner prejudicial to the commonwealth, quietness, rest, and peace of the subjects inhabiting within the same."

Is this description too hot, or too cold, too strong, or too weak? Does it arrogate too much to the supreme legislature? Does it lean too much to the claims of the people? If it runs into any of these errors, the fault is not mine. It is the language of your own ancient acts of Parliament.

Non meus hic sermo, sed quae praecepit Ofellus,
Rusticus, abnormis sapiens.

[Ofellus shall set forth
('Twas he that taught me it, a shrewd clear wit,
Though country-spun, and for the schools unfit).]

It is the genuine produce of the ancient, rustic, manly, home-bred sense of this country. I did not care to rub off a particle of the venerable rust that rather adorns and preserves, than destroys, the metal. It would be a profanation to touch with a tool the stones which construct the sacred altar of peace. I would not violate with modern polish the ingenuous and noble roughness of these truly constitutional materials. Above all things, I was resolved not to be guilty of tampering, the odious vice of restless and unstable minds. I put my foot in the tracks of our forefathers, where I can neither wander nor stumble. Determining to fix articles of peace, I was resolved not to be wise beyond what was written; I was resolved to use nothing else than the form of sound words; to let others abound in their own sense; and carefully to abstain from all expressions of our own. What the law has said, I say. In all things else I am silent. I have no organ but for her words. This, if it be not ingenious, I am sure is safe.

There are, indeed, words expressive of grievance in this second resolution, which those who are resolved always to be in the right will deny to contain matter of fact, as applied to the present case; although Parliament thought them true, with regard to the counties of Chester and Durham. They will deny that the Americans were ever "touched and grieved" with the taxes. If they consider nothing in taxes but their weight as pecuniary impositions, there might be some pretence for this denial. But men may be sorely touched and deeply grieved in their privileges, as well as in their purses. Men may lose little in property by the act which takes away all their freedom. When a man is robbed of a trifle on the highway, it is not the twopence lost that constitutes the capital outrage. This is not confined to privileges. Even ancient indulgences withdrawn, without offence on the part of those who enjoyed such favours, operate as grievances. But were the Americans then not touched and grieved by the taxes, in some measures, merely as taxes? If so, why were they almost all either wholly repealed or exceedingly reduced? Were they not touched and grieved even by the regulating duties of the sixth of George II.? Else why were the duties first reduced to one-third in 1764, and afterwards to a third of that third in the year 1766? Were they not touched and grieved by the stamp act? I shall say they were, until that tax is revived. Were they not touched and grieved by the duties of 1767, which were likewise repealed, and which Lord Hillsborough tells you (for the ministry) were laid contrary to the true principle of commerce? Is not the assurance given by that noble person to the colonies of a resolution to lay no more taxes on them, an admission that taxes would touch and grieve them? Is not the resolution of the noble lord in the blue riband, now standing on your journals, the strongest of all proofs that parliamentary subsidies really touched and grieved them? Else why all these changes, modifications, repeals, assurances, and resolutions?

The next proposition is—"That, from the distance of the said colonies, and from other circumstances, no method hath hitherto been devised for procuring a representation in Parliament for the said colonies." This is an assertion of a fact.

I go no further on the paper; though, in my private judgment, an useful representation is impossible; I am sure it is not desired by them; nor ought it perhaps by us; but I abstain from opinions.

The fourth resolution is this—"That each of the said colonies hath within itself a body, chosen in part, or in the whole, by the freemen, freeholders, or other free inhabitants thereof, commonly called the General Assembly, or General Court; with powers legally to raise, levy, and assess, according to the several usages of such colonies, duties and taxes towards defraying all sorts of public services."

This competence in the colony assemblies is certain. It is proved by the whole tenor of their acts of supply in all the assemblies, in which the constant style of granting is, "an aid to his Majesty"; and acts granting to the crown have regularly for nearly a century passed the public offices without dispute. Those who have been pleased paradoxically to deny this right, holding that none but the British Parliament can grant to the crown, are wished to look to what is done, not only in the colonies, but in Ireland, in one uniform, unbroken tenor every session. Sir, I am surprised that this doctrine should come from some of the law servants of the crown. I say, that if the crown could be responsible, his Majesty—but certainly the ministers, and even these law officers themselves, through whose hands the acts pass biennially in Ireland, or annually in the colonies, are in an habitual course of committing impeachable offences. What habitual offenders have been lords of the council, all secretaries of state, all first lords of trade, all attornies, and all solicitors general! However, they are safe; as no one impeaches them; and there is no ground of charge against them, except in their own unfounded theories.

The fifth resolution is also a resolution of fact—"That the said general assemblies, general courts, or other bodies legally qualified as aforesaid have at sundry times freely granted several large subsidies and public aids for his Majesty's service, according to their abilities, when required thereto by letter from one of his Majesty's principal secretaries of state; and that their rights to grant the same, and their cheerfulness and sufficiency in the said grants, have been at sundry times acknowledged by Parliament." To say nothing of their great expenses in the Indian wars; and not to take their exertions in foreign ones, so high as the supplies in the year 1695; not to go back to their public contributions in the year 1710; I shall begin to travel only where the journals give me light; resolving to deal in nothing but fact, authenticated by Parliamentary record; and to build myself wholly on that solid basis.

On the 4th of April, 1748, a committee of this House came to the following resolution:

"Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee, *that it is just and reasonable* that the several provinces and colonies of Massachusetts Bay, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island be reimbursed the expenses that they have been at in taking and securing to the Crown of Great Britain the Island of Cape Breton and its dependencies."

These expenses were immense for such colonies. They were above £200,000 sterling; money first raised and advanced on their public credit.

On the 28th of January, 1756, a message from the king came to us, to this effect: "His Majesty, being sensible of the zeal and vigour with which his faithful subjects of certain colonies in North America have exerted themselves in defence of his Majesty's just rights and possessions, recommends it to this House to take the same into their consideration, and to enable his Majesty to give them such assistance as may be a proper reward and encouragement."

On the 3d of February, 1756, the House came to a suitable resolution, expressed in words nearly the same as those of the message; but with the further addition, that the money then voted was as an *encouragement* to the colonies to exert themselves with vigour. It will not be necessary to go through all the testimonies which your own records have given to the truth of my resolutions; I will only refer you to the places in the journals:

Vol. XXVII.—16th and 19th May, 1757.

Vol. XXVIII.—June 1st, 1758—April 26th and 30th, 1759—March 26th and 31st, and April 28th, 1760—Jan. 9th and 20th, 1761.

Vol. XXIX.—Jan. 22d and 26th, 1762—March 14th and 17th, 1763.

Sir, here is the repeated acknowledgment of Parliament, that the colonies not only gave, but gave to satiety. This nation has formally acknowledged two things; first, that the colonies had gone beyond their abilities, Parliament having thought it necessary to reimburse them; secondly, that they had acted legally and laudably in their grants of money, and their maintenance of troops, since the compensation is expressly given as reward and encouragement. Reward is not bestowed for acts that are unlawful; and encouragement is not held out to things that deserve reprehension. My resolution therefore does nothing more than collect into one proposition, what is scattered through your journals. I give you nothing but your own; and you cannot refuse in the gross, what you have so often acknowledged in detail. The admission of this, which will be so honourable to them and to you, will, indeed, be mortal to all the miserable stories, by which the passions of the misguided people have been engaged in an unhappy system. The people heard, indeed, from the beginning of these disputes, one thing continually dinned in their ears, that reason and justice demanded, that the Americans, who paid no taxes, should be compelled to contribute. How did that fact, of their paying nothing, stand, when the taxing system began? When Mr. Grenville began to form his system of American revenue, he stated in this House, that the colonies were then in debt £2,600,000 sterling money; and was of opinion they would discharge that debt in four years. On this state, those untaxed people were actually subject to the payment of taxes to the amount of £650,000 a year. In fact, however, Mr. Grenville was mistaken. The funds given for sinking the old debt did not prove quite so ample as both the colonies and he expected. The calculation was too sanguine; the reduction was not completed till some years after, and at different times in different colonies. However, the taxes after the war continued too great to bear any addition, with prudence or propriety; and when the burthens imposed in consequence of former requisitions were discharged, our tone became too high to resort again to requisition. No colony, since that time, ever has had any requisition whatsoever made to it.

We see the sense of the crown, and the sense of Parliament, on the productive nature of a revenue by grant. Now search the same journals for the produce of the revenue by imposition—Where is it?—let us know the volume and the page—what is the gross, what is the net produce?—to what service is it applied?—how have you appropriated its surplus?—What, can none of the many skilful index-makers that we are now employing, find any trace of it? Well, let them and that rest together. But are the journals, which say nothing of the revenue, as silent on the discontent? Oh no! a child may find it. It is the melancholy burthen and blot of every page.

I think then I am, from those journals, justified in the sixth and last resolution, which is—"That it hath been found by experience, that the manner of granting the said supplies and aids, by the said general assemblies, hath been more agreeable to the said colonies, and more beneficial, and conductive to the public service, than the mode of giving and granting aids in Parliament, to be raised and paid in the said colonies." This makes the whole of the fundamental part of the plan. The conclusion is irresistible. You cannot say, that you were driven by any necessity to an exercise of the utmost rights of legislature. You cannot assert, that you took on yourselves the task of imposing colony taxes, from the want of another legal body, that is competent to the purpose of supplying the exigencies of the state without wounding the prejudices of the people. Neither is it true that the body so qualified, and having that competence, had neglected the duty.

The question now, on all this accumulated matter, is:—whether you will choose to abide by a profitable experience, or a mischievous theory; whether you choose to build on imagination, or fact; whether you prefer enjoyment, or hope; satisfaction in your subjects, or discontent?

If these propositions were accepted, everything which has been made to enforce a contrary system, must, I take it for granted, fall along with it. On that ground,

I have drawn the following resolution, which, when it comes to be moved, will naturally be divided in a proper manner: "That it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the seventh year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for granting certain duties in the British colonies and plantations in America; for allowing a drawback of the duties of customs upon the exportation from this kingdom, of coffee and cocoa-nuts of the produce of the said colonies and plantations; for discontinuing the drawbacks payable on China earthenware exported to America; and for more effectually preventing the clandestine running of goods in the said colonies and plantations.—And that it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act to discontinue, in such manner, and for such time, as are therein mentioned, the landing and discharging, lading or shipping, of goods, wares, and merchandise, at the town and within the harbour of Boston, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in North America.—And that it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for the impartial administration of justice, in the cases of persons questioned for any acts done by them, in the execution of the law, or for the suppression of riots and tumults, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England.—And that it may be proper to repeal an act, made in the fourteenth year of the reign of his present Majesty, intituled, An act for the better regulating the government of the province of Massachusetts Bay, in New England.—And, also, that it may be proper to explain and amend an act, made in the thirty-fifth year of the reign of King Henry VIII., intituled, An act for the trial of treasons committed out of the king's dominions."

I wish, sir, to repeal the Boston Port Bill, because (independently of the dangerous precedent of suspending the rights of the subject during the king's pleasure) it was passed, as I apprehended, with less regularity, and on more partial principles, than it ought. The corporation of Boston was not heard before it was condemned. Other towns, full as guilty as she was, have not had their ports blocked up. Even the restraining bill of the present session does not go to the length of the Boston Port Act. The same idea of prudence, which induced you not to extend equal punishment to equal guilt, even when you were punishing, induced me, who mean not to chastise, but to reconcile, to be satisfied with the punishment already partially inflicted.

Ideas of prudence and accommodation to circumstances prevent you from taking away the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island, as you have taken away that of Massachusetts colony, though the crown has far less power in the two former provinces than it enjoys in the latter; and though the abuses have been full as great, and as flagrant, in the exempted as in the punished. The same reasons of prudence and accommodation have weight with me in restoring the charter of Massachusetts Bay. Besides, sir, the act which changes the charter of Massachusetts is in many particulars so exceptionable, that if I did not wish absolutely to repeal, I would by all means desire to alter it; as several of its provisions tend to the subversion of all public and private justice. Such, among others, is the power in the governor to change the sheriff at his pleasure; and to make a new returning officer for every special cause. It is shameful to behold such a regulation standing among English laws.

The act for bringing persons accused of committing murder under the orders of government to England for trial is but temporary. That act has calculated the probable duration of our quarrel with the colonies; and is accommodated to that supposed duration. I would hasten the happy moment of reconcilation; and therefore must, on my principle, get rid of that most justly obnoxious act.

The act of Henry VIII., for the trial of treasons, I do not mean to take away, but to confine it to its proper bounds and original intention; to make it expressly for trial of treasons (and the greatest treasons may be committed) in places where the jurisdiction of the crown does not extend.

Having guarded the privileges of local legislature, I would next secure to the colonies a fair and unbiassed judicature; for which purpose, sir, I propose the following resolution: "That, from the time

when the general assembly or general court of any colony or plantation in North America, shall have appointed by act of assembly, duly confirmed, a settled salary to the offices of the chief-justice and other judges of the superior courts, it may be proper that the chief-justice and other judges of the superior courts of such colony, shall hold his and their office and offices during their good behaviour; and shall not be removed therefrom, but when the said removal shall be adjudged by his Majesty in council, upon a hearing on complaint from the general assembly, or on complaint from the governor, or council, or the house of representatives severally, or of the colony in which the said chief-justice and other judges have exercised the said offices."

The next resolution relates to the courts of admiralty.

It is this:—"That it may be proper to regulate the courts of admiralty, or vice-admiralty, authorized by the fifteenth chapter of the fourth of George III., in such a manner as to make the same more commodious to those who sue, or are sued, in the said courts, and to provide for the more decent maintenance of the judges in the same."

These courts I do not wish to take away; they are in themselves proper establishments. This court is one of the capital securities of the act of navigation. The extent of its jurisdiction, indeed, has been increased; but this is altogether as proper, and is indeed on many accounts more eligible, where new powers were wanted, than a court absolutely new. But courts incommodiously situated, in effect, deny justice; and a court, partaking in the fruits of its own condemnation, is a robber. The congress complain, and complain justly, of this grievance.

There are three consequential propositions. I have thought of two or three more; but they come rather too near detail, and to the province of executive government; which I wish Parliament always to superintend, never to assume. If the first six are granted, congruity will carry the latter three. If not, the things that remain unrepealed will be, I hope, rather unseemly encumbrances on the building, than very materially detrimental to its strength and stability.

Here, sir, I should close; but I plainly perceive some objections remain, which I ought, if possible, to remove. The first will be, that, in resorting to the doctrine of our ancestors, as contained in the preamble to the Chester act, I prove too much; that the grievance from a want of representation, stated in that preamble, goes to the whole of legislation as well as to taxation. And that the colonies, grounding themselves upon that doctrine, will apply it to all parts of legislative authority.

To this objection, with all possible deference and humility, and wishing as little as any man living to impair the smallest particle of our supreme authority, I answer, that the words are the words of Parliament, and not mine; and that all false and inconclusive inferences, drawn from them, are not mine; for I heartily disclaim any such inference. I have chosen the words of an act of Parliament, which Mr. Grenville, surely a tolerably zealous and very judicious advocate for the sovereignty of Parliament, formally moved to have read at your table in confirmation of his tenets. It is true, that Lord Chatham considered these preambles as declaring strongly in favour of his opinions. He was a no less powerful advocate for the privileges of the Americans. Ought I not from hence to presume, that these preambles are as favourable as possible to both, when properly understood; favourable both to the rights of Parliament, and to the privileges of the dependencies of this crown? But, sir, the object of grievance in my resolution I have not taken from the Chester, but from the Durham act, which confines the hardship of want of representation to the case of subsidies; and which therefore falls in exactly with the case of the colonies. But whether the unrepresented countries were *de jure* (in law), or *de facto* (in fact), bound, the preambles do not accurately distinguish; nor indeed was it necessary; for, whether *de jure*, or *de facto*, the legislature thought the exercise of the power of taxing, as of right, or as of fact without right, equally a grievance, and equally oppressive.

I do not know that the colonies have, in any general way, or in any cool hour, gone much beyond the demand of immunity in

relation to taxes. It is not fair to judge of the temper or dispositions of any man, or any set of men, when they are composed and at rest, from their conduct, or their expressions, in a state of disturbance and irritation. It is besides a very great mistake to imagine, that mankind follow up practically any speculative principle, either of government or of freedom, as far as it will go in argument and logical illation. We Englishmen stop very short of the principles upon which we support any given part of our constitution; or even the whole of it together. I could easily, if I had not already tired you, give you a very striking and convincing instance of it. This is nothing but what is natural and proper. All government, indeed every human benefit and enjoyment, every virtue, and every prudent act, is founded on compromise and barter. We balance inconveniences; we give and take; we remit some rights that we may enjoy others; and we choose rather to be happy citizens than subtile disputants. As we must give away some natural liberty, to enjoy civil advantages; so we must sacrifice some civil liberties for the advantages to be derived from the communion and fellowship of a great empire. But, in all fair dealings, the thing bought must bear some proportion to the purchase paid. None will barter away the immediate jewel of his soul. Though a great house is apt to make slaves haughty, yet it is purchasing a part of the artificial importance of a great empire too dear, to pay for it all essential rights, and all the intrinsic dignity of human nature. None of us who would not risk his life rather than fall under a government purely arbitrary. But although there are some amongst us who think our constitution wants many improvements to make it a complete system of liberty, perhaps none who are of that opinion would think it right to aim at such improvement, by disturbing his country, and risking everything that is dear to him. In every arduous enterprise, we consider what we are to lose as well as what we are to gain; and the more and better stake of liberty every people possess, the less they will hazard to make it more. These are the cords of man. Man acts from adequate motives relative to his interest; and not on metaphysical speculations. Aristotle, the great master of reasoning, cautions us, and with great weight and propriety, against this species of delusive geometrical accuracy in moral arguments, as the most fallacious of all sophistry.

The Americans will have no interest contrary to the grandeur and glory of England, when they are not oppressed by the weight of it; and they will rather be inclined to respect the acts of a superintending legislature, when they see them the acts of that power, which is itself the security, not the rival, of their secondary importance. In this assurance, my mind most perfectly acquiesces; and I confess, I feel not the least alarm from the discontents which are to arise from putting people at their ease; nor do I apprehend the destruction of this empire, from giving, by an act of free grace and indulgence, to 2,000,000 of my fellow-citizens some share of those rights, upon which I have always been taught to value myself.

It is said, indeed, that this power of granting, vested in American assemblies, would dissolve the unity of the empire; which was preserved entire, although Wales, and Chester, and Durham were added to it. Truly, Mr. Speaker, I do not know what this unity means; nor has it ever been heard of, that I know, in the constitutional policy of this country. The very idea of subordination of parts, excludes this notion of simple and undivided unity. England is the head; but she is not the head and members too. Ireland has ever had from the beginning a separate, but not an independent, legislature; which, far from distracting, promoted the union of the whole. Everything was sweetly and harmoniously disposed through both islands for the conservation of English dominion, and the communication of English liberties. I do not see that the same principles might not be carried into twenty islands, and with the same good effect. This is my model with regard to America, as far as the internal circumstances of the two countries are the same. I know no other unity of this empire, than I can draw from its example during these periods, when it seemed to my poor understanding more united than it is now, or than it is likely to be by the present methods.

But since I speak of these methods, I recollect, Mr. Speaker, almost too late, that I promised, before I finished, to say something of the proposition of the noble lord on the floor, which has been so lately received, and stands on your journals. I must be deeply concerned, whenever it is my misfortune to continue a difference with the majority of this House. But as the reasons for that difference are my apology for thus troubling you, suffer me to state them in a very few words. I shall compress them into as small a body as I possibly can, having already debated that matter at large, when the question was before the committee.

First, then, I cannot admit that proposition of a ransom by auction; because it is a mere project. It is a thing new; unheard of; supported by no experience; justified by no analogy; without example of our ancestors, or root in the constitution.

It is neither regular parliamentary taxation, nor colony grant. *Experimentum in corpore vili* (Try experiments only upon what is of no value)—is a good rule, which will ever make me adverse to any trial of experiments on what is certainly the most valuable of all subjects, the peace of this empire.

Secondly, it is an experiment which must be fatal in the end to our constitution. For what is it but a scheme for taxing the colonies in the antechamber of the noble lord and his successors? To settle the quotas and proportions in this House, is clearly impossible. You, sir, may flatter yourself you shall sit a state auctioneer with your hammer in your hand, and knock down to each colony as it bids. But to settle (on the plan laid down by the noble lord) the true proportional payment for four or five and twenty governments according to the absolute and relative wealth and burthen, is a wild and chimerical notion. This new taxation must, therefore, come in by the backdoor of the constitution. Each quota must be brought to this House ready formed; you can neither add nor alter. You must register it. You can do nothing further. For on what grounds can you deliberate either before or after the proposition? You cannot hear the counsel for all these provinces, quarrelling, each on its own quantity of payment, and its proportion to others. If you should attempt it, the committee of provincial ways and means, or by whatever other name it will delight to be called, must swallow up all the time of Parliament.

Thirdly, it does not give satisfaction to the complaint of the colonies. They complain that they are taxed without their consent; you answer, that you will fix the sum at which they shall be taxed. That is, you give them the very grievance for the remedy. You tell them, indeed, that you will leave the mode to themselves. I really beg pardon; it gives me pain to mention it; but you must be sensible that you will not perform this part of the compact. For, suppose the colonies were to lay the duties which furnished their contingent, upon the importation of your manufactures; you know you would never suffer such a tax to be laid. You know, too, that you would not suffer many other modes of taxation. So that, when you come to explain yourself, it will be found, that you will neither leave to themselves the quantum nor the mode; nor indeed anything. The whole is delusion from one end to the other.

Fourthly, this method of ransom by auction, unless it be universally accepted, will plunge you into great and inextricable difficulties. In what year of our Lord are the proportions of payments to be settled? To say nothing of the impossibility that colony agents should have general powers of taxing the colonies at their discretion, consider, I implore you, that the communication by special messages and orders between these agents and their constituents on each variation of the case, when the parties come to contend together, and to dispute on their relative proportions, will be a matter of delay, perplexity, and confusion, that never can have an end.

If all the colonies do not appear at the outcry, what is the condition of those assemblies, who offer by themselves or their agents, to tax themselves up to your ideas of their proportion? The refractory colonies, who refuse all composition, will remain taxed only to your old impositions, which, however grievous in principle, are trifling as to production. The obedient colonies in this scheme are heavily taxed;

the refractory remain unburthened. What will you do? Will you lay new and heavier taxes by Parliament on the disobedient? Pray consider in what way you can do it. You are perfectly convinced, that, in the way of taxing, you can do nothing but at the ports. Now, suppose it is Virginia that refuses to appear at your auction, while Maryland and North Carolina bid handsomely for their ransom, and are taxed to your quota, how will you put these colonies on a par? Will you tax the tobacco of Virginia? If you do, you give its death-wound to your English revenue at home, and to one of the greatest articles of your own foreign trade. If you tax the import of that rebellious colony, what do you tax but your own manufactures or the goods of some other obedient and already well-taxed colony? Who has said one word on this labyrinth of detail, which bewilders you more and more as you enter into it? Who has presented, who can present, you with a clue, to lead you out of it? I think, sir, it is impossible, that you should not recollect that the colony bounds are so implicated in one another (you know it by your other experiments in the bill for prohibiting the New England fishery), that you can lay no possible restraints on almost any of them which may not be presently eluded, if you do not confound the innocent with the guilty and burthen those whom, upon every principle, you ought to exonerate. He must be grossly ignorant of America, who thinks that, without falling into this confusion of all rules of equity and policy, you can restrain any single colony, especially Virginia and Maryland, the central and most important of them all.

Let it also be considered, that, either in the present confusion you settle a permanent contingent, which will and must be trifling; and then you have no effectual revenue: or you change the quota at every exigency; and then on every new repartition you will have a new quarrel.

Reflect, besides, that when you have fixed a quota for every colony, you have not provided for prompt and punctual payment. Suppose one, two, five, ten years' arrears. You cannot issue a treasury extent against the failing colony. You must make new Boston Port Bills, new restraining laws, new acts for dragging men to England for trial. You must send out new fleets, new armies. All is to begin again. From this day forward the empire is never to know an hour of tranquillity. An intestine fire will be kept alive in the bowels of the colonies, which one time or other must consume this whole empire. I allow, indeed, that the empire of Germany raises her revenue and her troops by the quotas and contingents; but the revenue of the empire, and the army of the empire, is the worst revenue and the worst army in the world.

Instead of a standing revenue, you will therefore have a perpetual quarrel. Indeed, the noble lord who proposed this project of a ransom by auction, seemed himself to be of that opinion. His project was rather designed for breaking the union of the colonies, than for establishing a revenue. He confessed, he apprehended that his proposal would not be to their taste. I say, this scheme of disunion seems to be at the bottom of the project; for I will not suspect that the noble lord meant nothing but merely to delude the nation by an airy phantom which he never intended to realize. But whatever his views may be, as I propose the peace and union of the colonies as the very foundation of my plan, it cannot accord with one whose foundation is perpetual discord.

Compare the two. This I offer to give you is plain and simple. The other full of perplexed and intricate mazes. This is mild; that harsh. This is found by experience effectual for its purposes; the other is a new project. This is universal; the other calculated for certain colonies only. This is immediate in its conciliatory operation; the other remote, contingent, full of hazard. Mine is what becomes the dignity of a ruling people, gratuitous, unconditional, and not held out as a matter of bargain and sale. I have done my duty in proposing it to you. I have, indeed, tired you by a long discourse; but this is the misfortune of those to whose influence nothing will be conceded, and who must win every inch of their ground by argument. You have heard me with goodness. May you decide with wisdom! For my part, I feel my mind greatly disburthened by what I

have done to-day. I have been the less fearful of trying your patience because on this subject I mean to spare it altogether in future. I have this comfort, that in every stage of the American affairs, I have steadily opposed the measures that have produced the confusion, and may bring on the destruction, of this empire. I now go so far as to risk a proposal of my own. If I cannot give peace to my country, I give it to my conscience.

But what (says the financier) is peace without money? Your plan gives us no revenue. No! But it does; for it secures to the subject the power of REFUSAL; the first of all revenues. Experience is a cheat, and fact a liar, if this power in the subject of proportioning his grant, or of not granting at all, has not been found the richest mine of revenue ever discovered by the skill or by the fortune of man. It does not, indeed, vote you £152,750:11: 2¾ths, nor any other paltry limited sum. But it gives you the strong-box itself, the fund, the bank, from whence only revenues can arise amongst a people sensible of freedom: *Posita luditur arca* (The chest is staked). Cannot you in England, cannot you at this time of day, cannot you, a House of Commons, trust to the principle which has raised so mighty a revenue, and accumulated a debt of near 140 millions in this country? Is this principle to be true in England and false everywhere else? Is it not true in Ireland? Has it not hitherto been true in the colonies? Why should you presume, that, in any country, a body duly constituted for any function, will neglect to perform its duty, and abdicate its trust? Such a presumption would go against all governments in all modes. But, in truth, this dread of penury of supply from a free assembly, has no foundation in nature. For first observe that, besides the desire which all men have naturally of supporting the honour of their own government, that sense of dignity, and that security to property, which ever attends freedom, has a tendency to increase the stock of the free community. Most may be taken where most is accumulated. And what is the soil or climate where experience has not uniformly proved that the voluntary flow of heaped-up plenty, bursting from the weight of its own rich luxuriance, has ever run with a more copious stream of revenue, than could be squeezed from the dry husks of oppressed indigence, by the straining of all the politic machinery in the world.

Next we know, that parties must ever exist in a free country. We know too, that the emulations of such parties, their contradictions, their reciprocal necessities, their hopes, and their fears, must send them all in their turns to him that holds the balance of the state. The parties are the gamesters; but government keeps the table, and is sure to be the winner in the end. When this game is played, I really think it is more to be feared that the people will be exhausted, than that government will not be supplied. Whereas, whatever is got by acts of absolute power ill-obeyed because odious, or by contracts ill kept because constrained, will be narrow, feeble, uncertain, and precarious. "Ease would retract vows made in pain as violent and void."

I, for one, protest against compounding for a limited sum, the immense, ever growing, eternal debt, which is due to generous government from protected freedom. And so may I speed in the great object I propose to you, as I think it would not only be an act of injustice, but would be the worst economy in the world, to compel the colonies to a sum certain, either in the way of ransom, or in the way of compulsory compact.

But to clear up my ideas on this subject—a revenue from America transmitted hither—do not delude yourselves—you never can receive it—no, not a shilling. We have experienced that from remote countries it is not to be expected. If, when you attempted to extract revenue from Bengal, you were obliged to return in loan what you had taken in imposition, what can you expect from North America? For certainly, if ever there was a country qualified to produce wealth, it is India; or an institution fit for the transmission, it is the East India Company. America has none of these aptitudes. If America gives you taxable objects, on which you lay your duties here, and gives you, at the same time, a surplus by a foreign sale of her commodities to pay the duties on these objects, which you tax at home, she has performed her part to the British rev-

enue. But with regard to her own internal establishments, she may, I doubt not she will, contribute in moderation. I say moderation, for she ought not to be permitted to exhaust herself. She ought to be reserved to a war; the weight of which, with the enemies that we are most likely to have, must be considered in her quarter of the globe. There she may serve you, and serve you essentially.

For that service, for all service, whether of revenue, trade, or empire, my trust is in her interest in the British constitution. My hold of the colonies is in the close affection which grows from common names, from kindred blood, from similar privileges, and equal protection. These are ties, which, though light as air, are as strong as links of iron. Let the colonies always keep the idea of their civil rights associated with your government; they will cling and grapple to you; and no force under heaven will be of power to tear them from their allegiance. But let it be once understood that your government may be one thing, and their privileges another; that these two things may exist without any mutual relation; the cement is gone; and everything hastens to decay and dissolution. As long as you have the wisdom to keep the sovereign authority of this country as the sanctuary of liberty, the sacred temple consecrated to our common faith, wherever the chosen race and sons of England worship freedom, they will turn their faces towards you. The more they multiply, the more friends you will have; the more ardently they love liberty, the more perfect will be their obedience. Slavery they can have anywhere. It is a weed that grows in every soil. They may have it from Spain, they may have it from Prussia. But, until you become lost to all feeling of your true interest and your natural dignity, freedom they can have from none but you. This is the commodity of price, of which you have the monopoly. This is the true act of navigation, which binds to you the commerce of the colonies, and through them secures to you the wealth of the world. Deny them this participation of freedom, and you break that sole bond, which originally made, and must still preserve, the unity of the empire. Do not entertain so weak an imagination, as that your registers and your bonds, your affidavits and your sufferances, your cockets and your clearances, are what form the great securities of your commerce. Do not dream that your letters of office, and your instructions, and your suspending clauses, are the things that hold together the great contexture of the mysterious whole. These things do not make your government. Dead instruments, passive tools as they are, it is the spirit of the English communion that gives all their life and efficacy to them. It is the spirit of the English constitution, which, infused through the mighty mass, pervades, feeds, unites, invigorates, vivifies every part of the empire, even down to the minutest member. Is it not the same virtue which does everything for us here in England? Do you imagine, then, that it is the land tax act which raises your revenue? that it is the annual vote in the committee of supply which gives you your army? or that it is the mutiny bill which inspires it with bravery and discipline? No! surely no! It is the love of the people; it is their attachment to their government, from the sense of the deep stake they have in such a glorious institution which gives you your army and your navy, and infuses into both that liberal obedience, without which your army would be a base rabble, and your navy nothing but rotten timber.

All this, I know well enough, will sound wild and chimerical to the profane herd of those vulgar and mechanical politicians, who have no place among us; a sort of people who think that nothing exists but what is gross and material; and who, therefore, far from being qualified to be directors of the great movement of empire, are not fit to turn a wheel in the machine. But to men truly initiated and rightly taught, these ruling and master principles, which, in the existence, are in truth everything, and all in all. Magnanimity in politics is not seldom the truest wisdom; and a great empire and little minds go ill together. If we are conscious of our situation, and glow with zeal to fill our place as becomes our station and ourselves, we ought to auspicate all our public proceedings on America with the old warning of the church, *Sursum corda!* (Lift up your hearts). We

ought to elevate our minds to the greatness of that trust to which the order of Providence has called us. By adverting to the dignity of this high calling, our ancestors have turned a savage wilderness into a glorious empire; and have made the most extensive and the only honourable conquests, not by destroying, but by promoting the wealth, the number, the happiness of the human race. Let us get an American revenue as we have got an American empire. English privileges have made it all that it is; English privileges alone will make it all that it can be.

In full confidence of this unalterable truth, I now (*quod felix faustumque sit*) [and may it be lucky and fortunate] lay the first stone of the temple of peace; and I move you:

"That the colonies and plantations of Great Britain in North America, consisting of fourteen separate governments, and containing 2,000,000 and upwards of free inhabitants, have not had the liberty and privilege of electing and sending any knights and burgesses or others, to represent them in the high court of Parliament."

Burke, THOMAS, governor, born in Ireland about 1747; went to Virginia when seventeen years old, and in time engaged in the practice of medicine. Then he studied law, and in 1774 moved to Hillsboro. He had written against the stamp act and other obnoxious measures, and he took a conspicuous part in politics in North Carolina. He was a member of the Provincial Congress in 1776; was engaged a short time in the army, and was a member of Congress from December, 1776, until early in 1781, when he was chosen governor of the State. In September of that year he was seized by Tories, and kept a prisoner on James Island, near Charleston, four months; after which he was regularly exchanged, resumed his duties of governor, but soon retired to private life. He died in Hillsboro, N. C., Dec. 2, 1783.

Burley, BENNETT G., naval officer; served in the Confederate navy. On Sept. 19, 1864, with other Confederates, he seized the *Philo Parsons*, a steamer on Lake Erie, and afterwards another steamer, the *Island Queen*, with which his party intended to capture the United States gunboat *Michigan* and release the Confederate prisoners on Johnson's Island; but the *Michigan* captured the whole party. The *Island Queen* was sunk and the *Philo Parsons* abandoned. Burley was placed on trial for extradition, and after considerable diplomatic correspondence with the British government was surrendered to the United States authorities for punishment. The Confederate government, under the plea of belligerent rights, endeavored to secure his release or exchange, but without success.

Burlingame, ANSON, diplomatist; born in New Berlin, Chenango co., N. Y., Nov. 14, 1820. His father, a farmer, removed to Seneca county, Ohio, when Anson was three years of age. Ten years later the family were in Michigan. Anson entered the University of Michigan in 1837, and was graduated at Harvard in 1846. He began the practice of law in Boston, and subsequently became an active member of the FREE SOIL PARTY (*q. v.*), acquiring a wide reputation as an effective speaker. In 1849–50 he was in Europe. In 1852 he was chosen a member of the Massachusetts Senate, and became an active supporter of the American party in 1854, by which he was elected to Congress the same year. Mr. Burlingame assisted in the formation of the Republican party in 1855–56; and he was regarded as one of the ablest debaters in Congress on that side of the House. Severely criticising Preston S. Brooks for his attack upon CHARLES SUMNER (*q. v.*), the South Carolinian challenged him to fight a duel. He promptly accepted the challenge, proposed rifles as the weapons, and Navy Island, just above Niagara Falls, as the place of conflict. Brooks declined to go there, and the matter was dropped. In March, 1861, President Lincoln appointed Mr. Burlingame minister to Austria. He having spoken in favor of Hungarian independence, the Austrian government refused to receive him, and he was sent as ambassador to China. There he carried forward important negotiations; and when, in 1867, he announced to the Chinese government his intention of returning home, Prince Kung, the regent of the empire, offered to appoint him special ambassador to the United States and the great European powers, for the purpose of

framing treaties of amity with those nations. This high honor Mr. Burlingame accepted; and at the head of a retinue of Chinese officials, he arrived in the United States in March, 1868. From his own country Mr. Burlingame proceeded on his mission to England, France, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and Prussia. He was well received, and he negotiated treaties with all but France. He had just entered upon negotiations at St. Petersburg, early in 1870, when he died of pneumonia after an illness of only a few days, Feb. 23, 1870.

Burlington Heights, EXPEDITION TO. The British maintained for some time a fortified camp at Burlington Heights, at the western end of Lake Ontario. There they made a depository of stores; and to capture these an expedition, composed of 300 land troops, under Col. Winfield Scott, borne by the fleet of Commodore Chauncey, left the mouth of the Niagara River, July 28, 1813. The usual feeble guard over the stores had just been reinforced. Convinced that their forces were insufficient to seize the prizes, Scott and Chauncey concluded to attack York, from which the British reinforcements had just been sent. The fleet bore the troops across the lake, and entered the harbor of York on July 31. Scott landed his troops without opposition; took possession of the place; burned the barracks, public storehouses and stores, and eleven transports; destroyed five pieces of cannon, and bore away as spoils one heavy gun and a considerable quantity of flour. They found in York (Toronto) the sick and wounded of Bœrstler's command captured at the BEAVER DAMS (*q. v.*).

Burnet, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born at The Hague, Holland, in March, 1688, when William of Orange (afterwards William III. of England) became his godfather at baptism; was a son of Bishop Burnet; became engaged in the South Sea speculations, which involved him pecuniarily, and, to retrieve his fortune, he received the appointment of governor of the colonies of New York and New Jersey. He arrived in New York in September, 1720. Becoming unpopular there, he was transferred to the governments of Massachusetts and New Hampshire. He arrived at Boston in July, 1728, and was received with unusual pomp. This show he urged in his speech as a proof of their ability to give a liberal support to his government, and acquainted them with the King's instructions to him to insist upon an established salary, and his intention to adhere to it. The Assembly at once took an attitude of opposition to the governor. They voted him £1,700 to enable him to manage public affairs, and to defray his expenses in going there. The governor declared himself dissatisfied, and would not consent to their resolve, as it was "contrary to his Majesty's instructions." The Assembly appealed to their charter, granted by King William, and refused to vote a fixed salary. A spirited contest in writing ensued. In one of his communications the governor threatened the colony with the loss of their charter. They remained firm, "because," they said, "it is the undoubted right of all Englishmen, by Magna Charta, to raise and dispose of money for the public service of their own free accord, without compulsion." At a town meeting in Boston, during the controversy, a unanimous declaration was made that the people of the town were opposed to settling a fixed salary on the governor. That official then adjourned the legislature to Salem, remarking, in his message for that purpose, that the interposition of towns was "a needless and officious step, better adapted to the republic of Holland than to a British constitution." The Assembly adhered to their determination, and the governor was compelled to yield. In person he was very commanding; frank in manner, and of ready wit. He died Sept. 7, 1729.

Burns, ANTHONY, negro slave; was seized in Boston, as a fugitive slave, May 27, 1854. After a judicial hearing he was remanded to slavery and was taken to the wharf and shipped South under a strong guard to prevent his rescue by anti-slavery sympathizers. The event created great excitement, and subsequently his freedom was purchased by a subscription raised in Boston, and after his release he settled in Canada.

Burns, JOHN, military officer; born in Burlington, N. J., Sept. 5, 1793; served in the War of 1812–15, taking part in the engagements at Plattsburg, Queenston, and Lundy's Lane. He endeavored to en-

list for the Mexican War, but being rejected on account of his age went with the army as a teamster. In 1863, when the Confederate scouts entered Gettysburg, he joined a party to oppose them, but was turned back by the National cavalry. He took an active part in the subsequent battle of Gettysburg, and when the report of his participation reached the Northern States it aroused much interest and he was hailed as the "hero of Gettysburg." He died in Gettysburg, Pa., Feb. 7, 1872.

Burnside, AMBROSE EVERETT, military officer; born in Liberty, Ind., May 23, 1824; was graduated at West Point in 1847, and, as a member of a corps of artillery, accompanied General Patterson to Mexico the same year. Afterwards he was in charge of a squadron of cavalry in New Mexico; was quartermaster of the Mexican Boundary Commission in 1850-51; resigned in 1853; established a manufactory of breech-loading rifles (his own invention) in Rhode Island; and was an officer of the Illinois Central Railroad

AMBROSE EVERETT BURNSIDE.

Company when the Civil War began. He went into that conflict as colonel of the 1st Rhode Island Volunteers. For good service at the battle of Bull Run he was made (Aug. 6, 1861) major-general of volunteers. He commanded the expedition that captured ROANOKE ISLAND (*q. v.*) in February, 1862; also Newbern and Beaufort. He was called to Virginia after the close of the campaign on the Peninsula, and was active and skilful as a corps commander in many of the most important military events of the war. General Burnside served in the campaign in Maryland under McClellan, and was in the battles at South Mountain and Antietam. On Nov. 7, 1862, he superseded McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac. Failing of success in his attack upon Lee at Fredericksburg (December, 1862), he resigned, and was succeeded by General Hooker in January, 1863. Assigned to the command of the Department of the Ohio in May, he was active there in suppressing the disloyal elements in that region. In the fall he freed eastern Tennessee of Confederate domination, where he fought Longstreet. He was in command of his old corps (the 9th) in Grant's campaign against Richmond in 1864–65, where he performed important work. He resigned April 15, 1865. In 1866 he was elected governor of Rhode Island, and was twice re-elected. Being in Europe in the fall of 1870, he was admitted within the German and French lines around Paris, and ineffectually endeavored to mediate between the belligerents. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1875, and was re-elected in 1880. He died in Bristol, R. I., Sept. 3, 1881.

Burnt Corn Creek, BATTLE OF. Peter McQueen, a half-blood Creek Indian of Tallahassee, was a fiery leader among the war party of that nation, wherein civil war was raging in the spring of 1813. This war Tecumseh had stirred up, and the whole Creek nation had become a seething caldron of passion. A British squadron in the Gulf held friendly intercourse with the Spanish authorities at Pensacola. To that port McQueen and 300 followers, with pack-horses, went to get supplies and convey them to the war party in the interior. That party was inimical to the white people settled in that nation, and it was the duty of the military in that region to protect the latter. This protection was not furnished, and the white inhabitants and the peace party among the Creeks prepared to defend themselves. Col. James Caller called out the militia to intercept McQueen. There was a prompt response, and Caller set out with a few followers. He marched towards the Florida frontier, joined on the

way by the famous borderer Capt. Samuel Dale and fifty men, who were engaged in the construction of a fort. He was now joined by others from Tensaw Lake and Little River under various leaders. Caller's command now numbered about 180 men, in small companies, well mounted on good frontier horses, and provided with rifles and shot-guns. Setting out on the main route for Pensacola on the morning of July 27 (1813), they found McQueen encamped upon a peninsula formed by the windings of Burnt Corn Creek. It was resolved to attack him. McQueen and his party were surprised, but they fought desperately a few minutes, and then fled towards the creek. The tide then turned. McQueen and his Indians arose from an ambush with horrid yells and fell upon less than 100 of Caller's men. Dale was severely wounded, but kept on fighting. Overwhelming numbers at length compelled Caller's force to retreat. They fled in disorder, many of them leaving their horses behind them. Victory rested with the hostile Creeks. Only two of Caller's command were killed and fifteen wounded. The battle of Burnt Corn Creek was the first in the Creek war, a conflict which ruined that nation. See CREEK INDIANS.

Burr, AARON, educator; born in Fairfield, Conn., Jan. 4, 1716; was of German descent; graduated at Yale College in 1735; and ordained by the presbytery of east Jersey in 1737. He became pastor at Newark, N. J., where he was chiefly instrumental in founding the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University), and was elected its president in 1748. In 1752 he married a daughter of Jonathan Edwards, the metaphysician. In 1754 he accompanied Whitefield to Boston. He died Sept. 24, 1757.

Burr, AARON, Vice-President of the United States; born at Newark, N. J., Feb. 6, 1756; a son of Rev. Aaron Burr, President of the College of New Jersey, and of a daughter of the eminent theologian, Jonathan Edwards. When nineteen years of age, he entered the Continental army, at Cambridge, as a private soldier, and as such accompanied Arnold in his expedition to Quebec. From the line of that expedition, in the wilderness, Arnold sent him with despatches to General Montgomery, at Montreal, where he entered the military family of that officer as hi aide-de-camp, with the rank of captain. Offended because checked by Montgomery in his officiousness, he left his staff and joined Arnold's. On the night of the assault on Quebec (Dec. 30 and 31, 1775) he was with Montgomery, and, when the latter was killed in that assault, he bore his body on his back from the field. He left the

AARON BURR.

army in Canada, and joined the military family of Washington, at New York, in May, 1776, with the rank of major. Dissatisfied with that position, he left it in the course of a few weeks and took a similar position on General Putnam's staff. He was active in the events connected with the defence and abandonment of the city of New York in 1776; and in 1777 he became lieutenant-colonel of Malcolm's regiment. Burr distinguished himself in the battle of Monmouth in 1778, where he commanded a brigade in Stirling's division. During the winter of 1778–79 he was stationed in Westchester county, N. Y. For a short time he was in command of the post at West Point, but, on account of ill-health, he left the army in March, 1779.

Burr was a born intriguer, and was naturally drawn towards Lee and Gates, and became a partisan in their schemes for injuring the reputation of Washington. He had been detected by the commander-in-

chief in immoralities, and ever afterwards he affected to despise the military character of Washington. He began to practise law at Albany in 1782, but removed to New York the next year. Entering the arena of politics, he was chosen a member of the New York legislature in 1784, and again in 1798. In 1789 he was appointed attorney-general of the State, and commissioner of Revolutionary claims in 1791. A member of the United States Senate from 1791 till 1797, Burr was a conspicuous Democratic leader in that body; and in the Presidential election in 1800 he and Thomas Jefferson had an equal number of votes in the electoral college. The House of Representatives decided the choice in favor of Jefferson on the thirty-sixth ballot, and Burr became Vice-President. In July, 1804, he killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel; and the next year he undertook his mad and mysterious enterprise in the West, which resulted in his trial for treason.

In March, 1805, Burr's term of office as Vice-President ended, and he descended to private life an utterly ruined man. But his ambition and his love of intrigue were as strong as ever, and he conceived schemes for personal aggrandizement and pecuniary gain. It was the general belief, at that time, in the United States, that the Spanish inhabitants of Louisiana would not quietly submit to our government. Taking advantage of this belief, and the restlessness of many of the inhabitants of the valley of the Mississippi, he conceived some daring schemes (none fully developed) of military operations in that region, which he attempted to carry out immediately after he left office. With several nominal objects in view, Burr started for the Mississippi Valley in company with General Wilkinson, who went to take possession of his office of governor of the Louisiana Territory, to which he had been appointed. At Pittsburg Burr started in a vessel called an "ark," in which were fitted up conveniences for a long voyage. Wilkinson was not ready, and the impatient Burr proceeded without him. He stopped at Blennerhassett's Island, nearly opposite Marietta, then inhabited by a wealthy and accomplished Irish gentleman of that name, who had created there a paradise for himself (see BLENNERHASSETT, HARMAN). He had a pleasant mansion, enriched by books, adorned with paintings, enlivened by music, and presided over by a lovely and accomplished wife. Burr laid before Blennerhassett a brilliant vision of wealth and power, in a scheme of conquest or revolution, which captivated him and fired the ambition that lay in the bosom of his wife. They engaged in Burr's scheme, whatever it may have been, with ardor.

After remaining there some time, Burr pressed forward, and at Louisville overtook MATTHEW LYON (*q. v.*), with whom he had voyaged in company in the earlier part of the journey. He accompanied Lyon to his home on the Cumberland River, whence he journeyed to Nashville on horseback; had a public reception (May 28, 1805), in which Andrew Jackson participated; and, furnished with a boat by that gentleman, returned to Lyon's. Then he resumed his voyage in his own "ark," and met Wilkinson at Fort Massac, nearly opposite the mouth of the Cumberland. Some soldiers were about to depart thence for New Orleans, and Wilkinson procured a barge from one of the officers for Burr's accommodation in a voyage to that city. There he found the inhabitants in a state of great excitement. The introduction of English forms of law proceedings, and the slight participation of the people in public affairs, had produced much discontent, especially among the Creoles and old settlers. Even the new American immigrants were divided by bitter political and private feuds. Burr remained only a short time, when he reascended the Mississippi to Natchez, whence he travelled through the wilderness, along an Indian trail or bridle-path, 450 miles, to Nashville, where he was entertained for a week by Jackson early in August. After spending a few weeks there, Burr made his way through the Indian Territory to St. Louis, where he again met Wilkinson, that being the seat of government of the Louisiana Territory. Then, for the first time, he threw out hints to Wilkinson of his splendid scheme of conquest in the Southwest, which he spoke of as being favored by the United States government. At the same time he complained of the government as imbecile, and the people of the West as ready for revolt. He made no explanation

to Wilkinson of the nature of his scheme, and that officer, suspicious of Burr's designs, wrote to his friend Robert Smith, Secretary of the Navy, advising the government to keep a watch upon his movements.

Burr went from St. Louis to Vincennes with a letter from Matt. Lyon to Governor Harrison, in which he urged the latter to use his influence to get Burr elected to Congress from that district. Thence Burr went eastward, stopping at Cincinnati, Chillicothe, and Marietta, everywhere conversing with leading men, to whom he gave only attractive hints of a brilliant scheme in hand. He spent that winter and the following spring and summer in Philadelphia and Washington, engaged in his mysterious projects. There he more clearly developed his scheme, which seemed to have a twofold character—the conquest of Mexico from the Spaniards and the establishment of an independent monarchy, and the revolutionizing the Mississippi Valley, separating that region from the rest of the Union, and forming an independent republic, with its seat of government at New Orleans. If the first-mentioned scheme should be carried out, Burr aspired to be *king;* if the latter, he was to be *president* of his new republic. Towards the end of summer (August, 1806) Burr departed on a second Western tour. For a year a vague suspicion prevailed throughout the country that Burr was engaged in a scheme for revolutionizing Mexico—an idea agreeable to the Western people because of the existing difficulties with Spain. It was believed, too (for so Burr had continually hinted), that such a scheme was secretly favored by the government. Under this impression Burr's project received the countenance of several leading men in the Western country. One of the first things which Burr did after his arrival in Kentucky was to purchase an interest in a claim to a large tract of land on the Washita River, under a Spanish grant to the Baron de Bastrop. The negotiation was carried on through Edward Livingston at New Orleans. The avowal of an intention to settle on these lands might cover up a far different design. Blennerhassett now joined Burr actively in his enterprise. Together they built, with the money of the former, fifteen boats on the Muskingum River; and negotiations were set on foot with an Ohio senator to furnish supplies for an army in the West and the purchase of two gunboats he was building for the government. A mercantile house at Marietta, in which Blennerhassett had been a partner, was authorized to purchase provisions, and a kiln was erected on Blennerhassett Island for drying corn to fit it for shipment. Young men enlisted in considerable numbers for an expedition down the Mississippi, about which only mysterious hints were given.

Meanwhile Wilkinson had arrived at Natchitoches to repel, with 500 or 600 troops, a Spanish invasion of the Territory of Orleans from Texas. There a young man appeared in camp with a letter of introduction from Jonathan Dayton, of New Jersey, to Colonel Cushing, the senior officer next to Wilkinson. He also slipped, unobserved, a letter into Wilkinson's hand, from Burr, which was a formal letter of introduction. It contained a letter from Burr, principally written in cipher. Circumstances seem to show that Wilkinson was at this time privy to, if not actually engaged in, Burr's scheme. The cipher letter informed Wilkinson that he (Burr) had arranged for troops under different pretexts at different points, who would rendezvous on the Ohio by Nov. 1; that the protection of England had been secured; that Truxton had gone to Jamaica to arrange with the English admiral; that an English fleet would meet on the Mississippi; that the navy of the United States was ready to join; that final orders had been given to his friends and followers; that Wilkinson should be second to Burr only; that the people of the country to which they were going were ready to receive them; and that their agents with Burr had stated that, if protected in their religion, and not subjected to a foreign government, all would be settled in three weeks. The plan was to move detachments of volunteers rapidly from Louisville in November, meet Wilkinson at Natchez in December, and then to determine whether to seize Baton Rouge (then in possession of the Spaniards as a part of west Florida) or pass on. Enclosed in the same packet was a letter, also in cipher, from Jonathan Dayton,

telling Wilkinson he would surely be displaced at the next meeting of Congress, and added, "You are not a man to despair, or even to despond, especially when such prospects offer in another quarter. Are you ready? Are your numerous associates ready? Wealth and glory! Louisiana and Mexico!—DAYTON."

The correspondence, in cipher and otherwise, between Wilkinson and Burr for several months previously leads to the conclusion that the former was, at that time, engaged in Burr's scheme, and that the latter relied upon him. Intimations in the letters of a design to seize newly acquired Louisiana startled Wilkinson, and he resolved to make the best terms he could with the Spanish commander on the Sabine and hasten back to New Orleans to defend it against any scheme of conquest there which Burr might contemplate or attempt. This design he communicated to Cushing, and obtained from the bearer of the letters such information as excited his alarm to a high pitch. The young man (named Swartwout) stated that he and another (named Ogden) had been sent by Burr from Philadelphia; that they had carried despatches from Burr to General Adair, of Kentucky, who was a party to the scheme; that they hastened towards St. Louis in search of Wilkinson, but learned at Kaskaskia that he had descended the river; that they followed to the mouth of the Red River, when Ogden went on to New Orleans with despatches to Burr's friends there, and he (Swartwout) had hastened to Wilkinson's headquarters. He said Burr was supported by a numerous and powerful association, extending from New York to New Orleans; that several thousand men were prepared for an expedition against the Mexican provinces; that the Territory of Orleans would be revolutionized—for which the inhabitants were quite ready; that he supposed some "seizing" would be necessary at New Orleans, and a forced "transfer" of the bank; that an expedition was to land at Vera Cruz and march thence to the Mexican capital; that naval protection would be furnished by Great Britain; and that Truxton and other officers of the navy, disgusted with the conduct of the government, would join in the enterprise.

After gathering all the information possible, Wilkinson sent, by express, two letters to President Jefferson—one official, the other confidential, in which, without mentioning any names, he gave a general outline of the proposed expedition; and then pushed forward to the Sabine. He sent orders to the commanding officer at New Orleans to put that place in the best possible condition for defence, and to secure, if possible, by contract, a train of artillery there belonging to the French. Having made a satisfactory arrangement with the Spanish commander, Wilkinson hastened back to Natchitoches, where he received a letter from St. Louis informing him that a plan to revolutionize the Western country was about to explode; and that Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Orleans Territory had combined to declare themselves independent on Nov. 15. Wilkinson, alarmed, ordered Cushing to hasten down with the troops, while he sped to Natchez; whence he sent a second special messenger to the President with duplicates of his former letters, and another declaring that a conspiracy really existed; and authorized the messenger to mention the names of Burr, Dayton, Truxton, and others as apparently engaged in the enterprise. He informed Governor Claiborne, of the Orleans Territory, that his government was menaced by a secret plot, and took other measures for its defence. At New Orleans Wilkinson procured a meeting of the merchants, to whom he and Governor Claiborne made an exposition of Burr's suspected projects. Bollman, an agent of Burr there, with Swartwout and Ogden, were arrested, and the militia of the Territory were placed at Wilkinson's disposal. Great excitement now prevailed on the lower Mississippi and on the Ohio and its tributaries. A series of articles, inspired, no doubt, if not written, by Burr, had appeared in an Ohio newspaper, signed "Querist," arguing strongly in favor of the separation of the Western States from the Union. Similar articles had appeared in a Democratic paper at Pittsburg. In Kentucky were many uneasy aspirants for political power, and an old story of Spanish influence there—through pensioners upon the bounty of Spain—was revived. Burr's enterprise became associated in the

public mind with the old Spanish plot; and Burr and his confederates, offended by what they deemed Wilkinson's treachery to their cause, associated him with the Spanish intriguers. These hints, reaching the lower Mississippi, embarrassed Wilkinson; for it was intimated that he was also connected with the schemes of Burr. General Jackson—who had favored Burr's schemes so long as they looked only towards a seizure of Spanish provinces—alarmed by evidences that he had wicked designs against the Union, wrote to Governor Claiborne (with the impression that Wilkinson was associated with Burr), warning him to beware of the designs of that officer and the ex-Vice-President. "I hate the Dons," Jackson wrote (Nov. 12, 1806); "I would delight to see Mexico reduced; but I would die in the last ditch before I would see the Union disunited."

Daviess, United States district attorney for Kentucky, watched Burr, and finally applied to the court for process for his arrest. Burr was summoned before a grand jury (Nov. 25), but, the attorney failing to get such witnesses as he desired, the jury not only failed to find a bill, but declared their belief that Burr intended nothing against the integrity of the Union. This triumph for Burr was celebrated by a ball at Frankfort. Meanwhile the President of the United States had commissioned Graham, secretary of the Orleans Territory, to investigate the reports about Burr, and, if well founded, to take steps to cut short his career. On Nov. 27 the President issued a proclamation that he had been informed of an unlawful scheme set on foot for invading the Spanish dominions; warning citizens of the United States not to engage in it; and directing all in authority to endeavor to suppress it. Before this Graham had drawn from Blennerhassett facts of great importance (for the latter took the secretary to be one of Burr's confidants), and applied to the governor of Ohio for the seizure of the boats on the Muskingum. The legislature, then in session, granted the request. A few days afterwards several boats, in charge of Colonel Tyler, filled with men, descended the Ohio to Blennerhassett's Island. Blennerhassett, informed of the seizure of his boats on the Muskingum, and that a body of militia was coming to seize those at the island, hastily embarked (Dec. 13) with a few of his followers, and descended the river in Tyler's flotilla. The next day a mob of militia took possession of the island, desolated it, and even insulted Mrs. Blennerhassett, who succeeded in obtaining an open boat and following her husband down the river.

The legislature of Kentucky speedily passed a similar act for seizures to that of Ohio. Tyler, however, had already passed Louisville. They were joined by Burr, and the flotilla passed out into the Mississippi and stopped at Chickasaw Bluffs (now Memphis), where Burr attempted to seduce the garrison into his service. Burr now first heard of the action of the legislature of the Orleans Territory, before which Wilkinson had laid his exposure of the schemes. Perceiving what he might expect at New Orleans, and fearful that the authorities of Mississippi might arrest him at once, Burr passed to the west side of the river, out of their jurisdiction, where he formed a camp, 30 miles above Natchez. Under the proclamation of the President, a militia force was raised to arrest Burr. He made an unconditional surrender to the civil authority, and agreed that his boats should be searched and all arms taken. Before this was accomplished his cases of arms were cast into the river; and as no evidence of any hostile intention was found, a belief prevailed that he was innocent of any of the designs alleged against him. Burr was brought before the Supreme Court of the Territory, and was not only not indicted by the grand jury, but they presented charges against the governor for calling out the militia to arrest him. Burr spoke bitterly of Wilkinson as a traitor, and, fearing to fall into his hands, he resolved to disband his men and fly. He told them to sell what provisions they had, and, if they chose, to settle on his Washita lands. They dispersed through the Mississippi Territory, and furnished an abundant supply of school-masters, singing-masters, dancing-masters, and doctors. A reward was offered for the capture of Burr, and he was arrested (Feb. 19, 1807) by the Register of the Land-office, assisted by Lieut. (afterwards

Maj.-Gen.) Edmund P. Gaines, near Fort Stoddart, on the Tombigbee River, in eastern Mississippi. An indictment for high treason was found against Burr by a grand jury for the District of Virginia. He was charged with levying war, by the collection of armed men at Blennerhassett's Island, within the dominion of Virginia. He was also charged with concocting a scheme for the overthrow of the national authority in the Western States and Territories. On these charges he was tried and acquitted.

After his acquittal Burr went to England and sought to engage that or some other European government in his project for revolutionizing Mexico. Pressed by his creditors, he lived a miserable life, in poverty, in London and Paris. Becoming subject to suspicion in London as a French spy, he was driven from the country, and took refuge in Paris. Finally, after long solicitations, he obtained leave to return, and appeared in New York in 1812, where he resumed the practice of law; but he lived in comparative poverty and obscurity until 1834, when, at the age of seventy-eight, he married Madame Jumel, a wealthy woman in New York, with whom he lived only a short time, when they were separated. Burr's first wife was Mrs. Prelina. She left Charleston (1812) in a vessel to visit her father in New York, and was never heard of afterwards. Burr was small in stature, of great ability, and fascinating in manners. He died on Staten Island, Sept. 14, 1836.

Burritt, ELIHU, reformer; born in New Britain, Conn., Dec. 8, 1810. At the age of sixteen he was apprenticed to a blacksmith. In order to read the Scriptures in their original language, he learned Greek and Hebrew, and read these with so much ease that he continued his studies and mastered many other languages. He was called "the learned blacksmith." He became a reformer, and went to England in 1846, where he formed the "League of Universal Brotherhood," for the abolition of war, slavery, and other national evils. He was appointed United States consul at Birmingham in 1865, and returned home in 1870. He died in New Britain, March 9, 1879.

Burrows, WILLIAM, naval officer; born in Kensington (now a part of Philadelphia), Oct. 6, 1785; entered the navy, as midshipman, November, 1799; and served under Preble in the war against Tripoli. In March, 1807, he was promoted to lieutenant, and, early in the War of 1812–15, he was placed in command of the sloop-of-

VICTORIAM PRO CLARAM PATRIÆ MISERANT
Wm. BURROWS
VIVERE SAT VINCERE
INTER ENTERPRIZE NAV. AMERI. ET BOXER NAV. BRIT. DIE IV SEPT. MDCCCXIII.

THE BURROWS MEDAL.

vost, the widow of a British officer, by whom he had a daughter, Theodosia. She became an accomplished woman, and the wife of Governor Allston, of South Carolina.

war *Enterprise*. On Sunday, Sept. 5, 1813, he fought the British brig *Boxer*, with the *Enterprise*, off Portland, Me. The *Boxer* was vanquished, but Burrows was slain.

For this exploit, Congress voted a gold medal to his nearest male relation.

Bushyhead, JESSE, jurist; was a self-educated man; became greatly honored in the Cherokee Nation; and was chief-justice there for many years. He died in the Cherokee Nation, July 17, 1844.

Bute, JOHN STUART, EARL OF, statesman; born in Scotland in 1713; succeeded to his father's titles and estates when he was ten years of age; and, in 1736, married the only daughter of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. In February, 1737, he was selected one of the sixteen representative peers of Scotland, and appointed lord of the bedchamber of the Prince of Wales in 1738. The beautiful Princess of Wales gave him her confidence on the death of her husband in 1751, and made him preceptor of her son, afterwards King George III. Over that youth he gained great influence. When he ascended the throne, in 1760, George promoted Bute to a privy councillor, and, afterwards, a secretary of state; and, when Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle retired from the cabinet, Bute was made prime minister. He soon became unpopular, chiefly because the King had discarded the great Pitt, and preferred this Scotch adventurer, whose bad advice was misleading his sovereign. Insinuations were rife about the too intimate personal relations of Bute and the young King's mother, who, it was believed, ruled both the King and his minister; and a placard appeared in front of the Royal Exchange, in large letters, "No petticoat government—no Scotch minister—no Lord George Sackville!" Bute was vigorously attacked by John Wilkes in his *North Briton*. The minister's unpopularity increased. Suspicions of his being bribed by the enemies of England were rife; and, perceiving a rising storm that threatened to overwhelm him with disgrace, Bute suddenly resigned his office (April 7, 1763), but nominated his successor. He retired to private life, passing his time between England and Scotland in the enjoyment of an ample fortune. He published, at his own expense ($50,000), a work on botany, in 9 volumes, printing only twelve copies to make the work scarce. He died in London, March 10, 1792.

Butler, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, lawyer and soldier; born in Deerfield, N. H., Nov. 5, 1818; was graduated at Waterville College, Me., in 1838; was admitted to the bar in 1841; and continued the practice until 1861, with a high reputation as a criminal lawyer. He was an active politician in the Democratic party until its

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BUTLER.

disruption at Charleston in 1860; and he had served as a member of both Houses of the Massachusetts legislature. As brigadier-general of militia he hastened towards Washington, on the call of the President, with troops, in April, 1861, and landed at Annapolis. He was placed in command of the Department of Annapolis, which included BALTIMORE (*q. v.*). At the middle of May he was made major-general of volunteers, and put in command of the Department of Virginia, with headquarters at Fort Monroe, where he held as contraband all fugitive slaves. In August (1861), an expedition which he commanded captured forts Hatteras and Clarke; and, in the spring of 1862, he led another expedition for the capture of New Orleans, in which he was successful.

In New Orleans he elicited unbounded praise from loyal people because of his vigor and efficiency, and created the most intense hatred of himself personally among the Confederates by his restrictive measures. On his arrival he seized the fine St. Charles Hotel, and made it his headquarters. The mayor of the city, John T. Monroe, took an attitude of defiance. He refused to surrender the city, or take down the Louisiana flag from the

city hall. The editor of the *True Delta* refused to print Butler's proclamation in hand-bill form. The general invited the city authorities to a conference. The mayor at first refused to go, but finally went to the St. Charles, with Pierre Soulé (formerly member of Congress) and other friends. They persisted in regarding Louisiana as an independent nation, and the National troops as invaders or intruders. An immense and threatening mob had collected in the streets in front of the St. Charles. Butler had placed troops there and a cannon for the protection of headquarters. The commander sent him word that the mob was pressing hard upon him. "Give my compliments to General Williams" (the commander), said Butler; "and tell him if he finds he cannot control the mob to open upon them with artillery." The mayor and his friends sprang to their feet, exclaiming, "Don't do that, general!" "Why not, gentlemen?" said Butler; "the mob must be controlled. We can't have a disturbance in the street." The mayor went to a balcony, informed the mob of the general's order, and persuaded them to disperse. Butler read a proclamation which he had prepared to Soulé, who declared it would give great offence; that the people were not conquered and would never submit, and uttered a threat in smooth terms. To this Butler replied: "I have long been accustomed to hear threats from Southern gentlemen in political conventions; but let me assure the gentlemen present that the time for tactics of that nature has passed, never to return. New Orleans *is* a conquered city. If not, why are we here? How did we get here? Have you opened your arms, and bid us welcome? Are we here by your consent? Would you or would you not expel us if you could? New Orleans has been conquered by the forces of the United States, and, by the laws of all nations, lies subject to the will of the conqueror." These utterances indicated the course General Butler intended to pursue in New Orleans and in the Department of the Gulf; and, within twenty-four hours after he had taken possession of the city, there was a perfect understanding between him and the people of their mutual relations. Butler, at the same time, took pains to remove all causes for unnecessary irritation, and removed his headquarters from the St. Charles to a private residence.

At the beginning of September, 1862, Butler was satisfied that the Confederates had abandoned all ideas of attempting to retake New Orleans, so he proceeded to "repossess" some of the rich districts of Louisiana. He sent Gen. Godfrey Weitzel with a brigade of infantry, with artillery, and Barnet's cavalry, late in October, into the region of the district of La Fourche, west of the Mississippi. On Oct. 27 Weitzel had a sharp fight at Labadieville with Confederates under General McPheeters. They were on both sides of the Bayou La Fourche, with six pieces of cannon. These Weitzel attacked with musketry and cannon. The Confederates were driven and pursued about 4 miles. Weitzel lost eighteen killed and seventy-four wounded. He captured 268 prisoners and one cannon. He then proceeded to open communication with New Orleans by the bayou and the railway connecting Brashear (afterwards Morgan) City with it. The whole country was abandoned, and the troops were received with joy by the negroes. All industrial operations there were paralyzed, and General Butler, as a state policy and for humane purposes, confiscated the entire property of the district, appointed a commission to take charge of it, and set the negroes to work, by which they were subsisted and the crops saved. Two congressional districts in Louisiana were thus "repossessed," and the loyal citizens of New Orleans elected to seats in Congress Benjamin F. Flanders and Michael Hahn. In December, 1862, General Butler was succeeded by Gen. N. P. BANKS (*q. v.*), in command of the Department of the Gulf. Late in 1863, he was placed in command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, and his force was designated the Army of the James. After an unsuccessful expedition against Fort Fisher, in December, 1864, General Butler retired to his residence in Massachusetts. He was elected to Congress in 1866, and was one of the principal managers of the House of Representatives in conducting the impeachment of President Johnson. He was a Republican Congressman until 1875, and again in 1877–79. In 1883 he was Democratic gov-

ernor of Massachusetts, and in 1884 the People's party candidate for President. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 11, 1893.

Farewell Address in New Orleans.—As before stated, General Butler was superseded by General Banks in December, 1862. The latter assumed command of the army and Department of the Gulf on the 16th, and the same day General Butler issued the following address:

———

Citizens of New Orleans,—It may not be inappropriate, as it is not inopportune in occasion, that there should be addressed to you a few words at parting, by one whose name is to be hereafter indissolubly connected with your city. I shall speak in no bitterness, because I am not conscious of a single personal animosity. Commanding the Army of the Gulf, I found you captured, but not surrendered; conquered, but not orderly; relieved from the presence of an army, but incapable of taking care of yourselves. So far from it, you had called upon a foreign legion to protect you from yourselves. I restored order, punished crime, opened commerce, brought provisions to your starving people, reformed your currency, and gave you quiet protection, such as you had not enjoyed for many years. While doing this, my soldiers were subjected to obloquy, reproach, and insult. And now, speaking to you, who know the truth, I here declare that whoever has quietly remained about his business, affording neither aid nor comfort to the enemies of the United States, has never been interfered with by the soldiers of the United States. The men who had assumed to govern you and to defend your city in arms having fled, some of your women flouted at the presence of those who came to protect them. By a simple order (No. 28) I called upon every soldier of this army to treat the women of New Orleans as a gentleman should deal with the sex, with such effect that I now call upon the just-minded ladies of New Orleans to say whether they have ever enjoyed so complete protection and calm quiet for themselves and their families as since the advent of the United States troops. The enemies of my country, unrepentant and implacable, I have treated with merited severity. I hold that rebellion is treason, and that treason persisted in is death, and any punishment short of that due a traitor gives so much clear gain to him from the clemency of the government. Upon this thesis have I administered the authority of the United States, because of which I am not unconscious of complaint. I do not feel that I have erred in too much harshness, for that harshness has ever been exhibited to disloyal enemies of my country, and not to loyal friends. To be sure, I might have regaled you with the amenities of British civilization, and yet been within the supposed rules of civilized warfare. You might have been smoked to death in caverns, as were the covenanters of Scotland, by the command of a general of the royal house of England; or roasted like the inhabitants of Algiers during the French campaigns; your wives and daughters might have been given over to the ravisher, as were the unfortunate dames of Spain in the Peninsular War; or you might have been scalped and tomahawked as our mothers were at Wyoming, by savage allies of Great Britain, in our own Revolution; your property could have been turned over to indiscriminate "loot," like the palace of the Emperor of China; works of art which adorned your buildings might have been sent away, like the paintings of the Vatican; your sons might have been blown from the mouths of cannon, like the Sepoys of Delhi; and yet all this would have been within the rules of civilized warfare, as practised by the most polished and the most hypocritical nations of Europe. For such acts the records of the doings of some of the inhabitants of your city towards the friends of the Union, before my coming, were a sufficient provocative and justification. But I have not so conducted. On the contrary, the worst punishment inflicted, except for criminal acts punishable by every law, has been banishment, with labor, to a barren island, where I encamped my own soldiers before marching here. It is true, I have levied upon the wealthy rebels, and paid out nearly half a million of dollars to feed 40,000 of the starving poor of all nations assembled here, made so by this war. I saw that this rebellion was a war of the aristocrat against the middling men; of the rich against the poor; a war

of the land-owner against the laborer; that it was a struggle for the retention of power in the hands of the few against the many; and I found no conclusion to it save in the subjugation of the few and the disenthralment of the many. I therefore felt no hesitation in taking the substance of the wealthy, who had caused the war, to feed the innocent poor, who had suffered by the war. And I shall now leave you with the proud consciousness that I carry with me the blessings of the humble and loyal under the roof of the cottage and in the cabin of the slave, and so am quite content to incur the sneers of the salon or the curses of the rich. I found you trembling at the terrors of servile insurrection. All danger of this I have prevented by so treating the slave that he had no cause to rebel. I found the dungeon, the chain, and the lash your only means of enforcing obedience in your servants. I leave them peaceful, laborious, controlled by the laws of kindness and justice. I have demonstrated that the pestilence can be kept from your borders. I have added a million of dollars to your wealth in the form of new land from the battue of the Mississippi. I have cleansed and improved your streets, canals, and public squares, and opened new avenues to unoccupied land. I have given you freedom of elections, greater than you have ever enjoyed before. I have caused justice to be administered so impartially that your own advocates have unanimously complimented the judges of my appointment. You have seen, therefore, the benefit of the laws and justice of the government against which you have rebelled. Why, then, will you not all return to your allegiance to that government—not with lip service, but with the heart? I conjure you, if you desire to see renewed prosperity, giving business to your streets and wharves—if you hope to see your city become again the mart of the Western world, fed by its rivers for more than 3,000 miles, draining the commerce of a country greater than the mind of man hath ever conceived—return to your allegiance. If you desire to leave to your children the inheritance you received of your fathers—a stable constitutional government—if you desire that they should in the future be a portion of the greatest empire the sun ever shone upon—return to your allegiance. There is but one thing that stands in the way. There is but one thing that this hour stands between you and the government, and that is slavery. The institution, cursed of God, which has taken its last refuge here, in His providence will be rooted out as the tares from the wheat, although the wheat be torn up with it. I have given much thought to this subject. I came among you, by teachings, by habit of mind, by political position, by social affinity, inclined to sustain your domestic laws, if by possibility they might be with safety to the Union. Months of experience and of observation have forced the conviction that the existence of slavery is incompatible with the safety either of yourselves or of the Union. As the system has gradually grown to its present huge dimensions, it were best if it could be gradually removed, but it is better, far better, that it should be taken out at once than that it should longer vitiate the social, political, and family relations of your country. I am speaking with no philanthropic views as regards the slave, but simply of the effect of slavery on the master. See for yourselves. Look around you and say whether this saddening, deadening influence has not all but destroyed the very framework of your society. I am speaking the farewell words of one who has shown his devotion to his country at the peril of his life and fortune, who in these words can have neither hope nor interest, save the good of those whom he addresses; and let me here repeat, with all the solemnity of an appeal to Heaven to bear me witness, that such are the views forced upon me by experience. Come, then, to the unconditional support of the government. Take into your own hands your own institutions; remodel them according to the laws of nations and of God, and thus attain that great prosperity assured to you by geographical position, only a portion of which was heretofore yours.

Butler, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, lawyer; born in Kinderhook Landing, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1795; studied law with Martin Van Buren in Hudson, and subsequently became his partner. In 1825 he was appointed one of the three commissioners to revise the *Statutes* of New York; in 1833–

38 was Attorney-General of the United States; and in 1836–37 was acting Secretary of War. In 1837 he became Professor of Law in the University of the City of New York. He was the author of *Outlines of the Constitutional History of New York*. He died in Paris, France, Nov. 8, 1858.

Butler, JOHN, Tory leader; born in Connecticut; was in official communication with the Johnsons in the Mohawk Valley before the Revolutionary War, and was colonel of a militia regiment in Tryon county, N. Y. In 1776 he organized a band of motley marauders—white men and Indians, the former painted and behaving like savages. He was in command of them in the battle of ORISKANY (*q. v.*), and of 1,100 men who desolated the Wyoming Valley in July, 1778. He fought Sullivan in the Indian country in central New York in 1779, and accompanied Sir John Johnson in his raid on the Schoharie and Mohawk settlements in 1780. He died in Niagara in 1794. His son, WALTER, was killed during the war.

Butler, MATTHEW CALBRAITH, military officer; born in Greenville, S. C., March 8, 1836; educated at the South Carolina College; admitted to the bar in 1857; joined the Confederate army as Captain in June, 1861, reaching the rank of major-general. At the battle of Brandy Station he lost his right leg. He was a United States Senator, 1877–95; major-general of volunteers in the war against Spain, 1898; and a commissioner to superintend the evacuation of Cuba.

Butler, PIERCE, statesman; born in Ireland, July 11, 1744. He entered the British army in 1761; resigned before the Revolution, and settled in Charleston, S. C.; member of Congress, 1787, and of the Federal Constitutional Convention, where he supported the "Virginia" plan; United States Senator, 1789–96 and 1802–4. He died in Philadelphia, Feb. 15, 1822.

Butler, PIERCE MASON, military officer; born in Edgefield, S. C., April 11, 1798; entered the United States army in 1819; resigned, 1829; served in the Seminole War; governor of South Carolina, 1838; re-entered the army in 1846 as colonel of the Palmetto Regiment, which he led with great gallantry at Cerro Gordo; killed in the battle of Churubusco, Aug. 22, 1847.

Butler, RICHARD, military officer; born in Ireland; came to America before 1760; was a lieutenant-colonel in the Pennsylvania line in the Continental army, and also of Morgan's rifle corps in 1777. Butler served throughout the war; was agent for Indian affairs in Ohio in 1787; and was with St. Clair in his expedition against the Indians, late in 1791, commanding the right wing of his army, with the rank of major-general. In that expedition he was killed by Indians in a battle in Ohio, Nov. 4, 1791.

Butler, THOMAS, military officer; born in Pennsylvania in 1754; was in almost every important battle in the Middle States during the Revolution. At Brandywine and at Monmouth he received the thanks of his commanders (Washington and Wayne) for skill and bravery. In 1791 he commanded a battalion under St. Clair, and was twice wounded at the defeat of that leader, where his brother Richard was killed. He died in New Orleans, Sept. 7, 1805.

Butler, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Prince William county, Va., in 1759; graduated at the South Carolina College in 1779; entered the Revolutionary army the same year; served under Pulaski, Pickens, and Lee; organized a regiment of mounted rangers; rose to the rank of brigadier-general; member of Congress, 1801–13. He died in Columbia, S. C., Nov. 15, 1821.

Butler, WILLIAM ORLANDO, military officer; born in Jessamine county, Ky., in 1791; graduated at Transylvania University in 1812; in the War of 1812 he took part in the engagements of Raisin River, Pensacola, and New Orleans; major-general during the Mexican War, distinguishing himself at Monterey; succeeded General Scott in the command of the army in Mexico; candidate for Vice-President in 1848 on the ticket with General Cass. He died in Carrollton, Ky., Aug. 6, 1880.

Butler, ZEBULON, military officer; born in Lyme, Conn., in 1731; served in the French and Indian War and in the expedition to Havana in 1762, when he became a captain. He settled in the Wyoming Valley, Pa., in 1769, and was there when the valley was invaded by Tories and Ind-

ians under Col. John Butler in 1778. In defence of the inhabitants he commanded the feeble force there, but was unable to prevent the massacre that took place. The next year he accompanied Sullivan in his expedition into the Indian country in central New York, and served during the remainder of the war. He died in Wilkesbarre, Pa., July 28, 1795.

Butterfield, DANIEL, military officer; born in Utica, N. Y., Oct. 31, 1831; graduated at Union College in 1849; became brigadier-general of volunteers soon after the breaking out of the Civil War, and took part in campaigns under Generals McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, and Pope. He was Hooker's chief-of-staff at the battle of Lookout Mountain. At the close of the war he was brevetted major-general for "gallant and meritorious service," and was for some years head of the sub-treasury in New York City. He died in Cold Spring, N. Y., July 17, 1901.

DANIEL BUTTERFIELD.

Butterworth, BENJAMIN, statesman; born in Warren county, O., Oct. 22, 1822; educated at Ohio University; member of Congress, 1879–83; 1884–90 commissioner of patents, 1883 and 1897. He died in Thomasville, Ga., Jan. 16, 1898.

Butts, ISAAC, journalist; born in Washington, N. Y., Jan. 11, 1816; edited the Rochester *Advertiser*, 1845–49, and the Rochester *Union*, 1857–64; originated the doctrine of "Squatter Sovereignty," or "Popular Sovereignty"—that the people of each Territory should decide the question of slavery for themselves. He died in Rochester, N. Y., Nov. 20, 1874.

Byrd, WILLIAM, colonial official; born in Westover, Va., March 16, 1674. Inheriting a large fortune, and acquiring a good education, he became a leader in the promotion of science and literature in Virginia, and was made a fellow of the Royal Society of London. Long receiver-general of the revenue in Virginia, he was also three times made agent of that colony in England, and was for thirty-seven years a member, and finally president, of the King's council of the colony. He was one of the commissioners, in 1728, for running the boundary-line between Virginia and North Carolina. He made notes of his operations and the incidents thereof, which form a part of the *Westover Manuscripts*, published by Edmund Ruffin in 1841. In 1733 he laid out the cities of Richmond and Petersburg, Va. He died Aug. 26, 1744.